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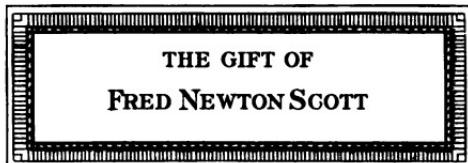
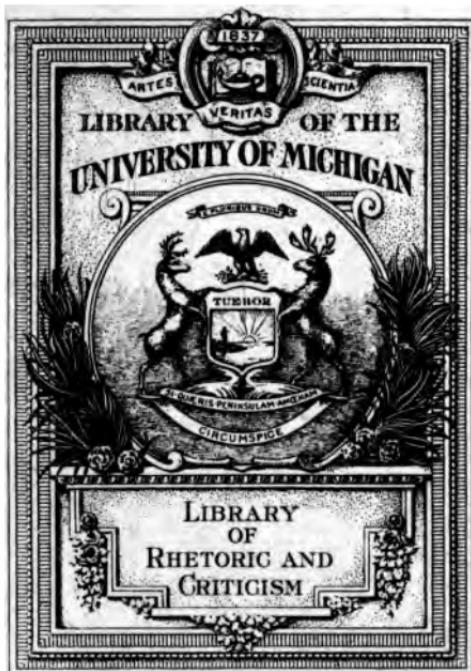
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

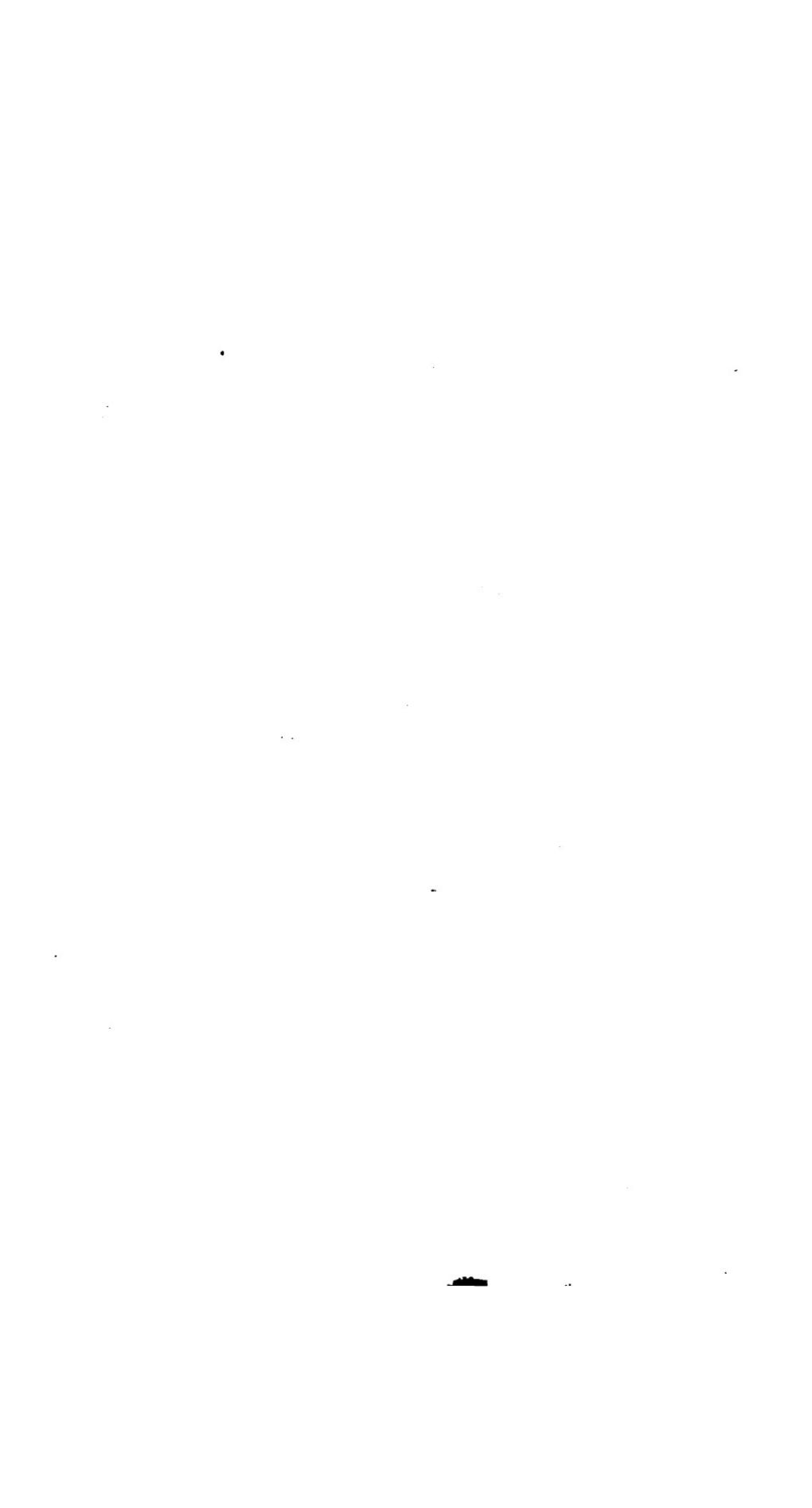




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AN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR THE
HIGHER GRADES IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

ADAPTED FROM

"ESSENTIALS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR"
By W^m. D. WHITNEY

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OF THE "CENTURY DICTIONARY"

WITH NEW ARRANGEMENT AND ADDITIONAL EXERCISES
SUITABLE FOR YOUNGER PUPILS

BY
MRS. SARA E. H. LOCKWOOD
AUTHOR OF "LESSONS IN ENGLISH"

BOSTON, U.S.A.
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PREFACE.

THIS adaptation of Whitney's "Essentials of English Grammar" is designed to furnish a simple and practical text-book for pupils who are not of sufficient maturity to use with advantage the original work. To this end, a new book has been made with topical arrangement, abundant exercises of a more elementary style, and a generally simplified treatment.

While the intention has been to embody all the excellent features of the "Essentials," it has sometimes seemed best to sacrifice inductive development of a subject to clearness and conciseness of expression, since it is presupposed that the classes for whom this book is intended have already had some elementary introduction to the study of English.

It should be understood that, in using the book, the order of chapters is not, of necessity, to be strictly followed. For instance, the chapter on "Infinitives and Participles" may be studied, as a whole or in part, directly after the same subject, as treated in the chapter on "Verbs." Again, the analysis of sen-

tences may and should be studied in connection with the parsing of exercises in the early chapters of the book.

It should be added that the "Essentials" will continue to be published for the use of those who desire a book of its grade.

December, 1891.

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LANGUAGE LESSONS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.—LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

1. The English Language.—There are hundreds of languages spoken in the world, and the only way in which we can define any one of them is to say that it is the language spoken in such and such a country or by such and such a people. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE may, therefore, be defined as the language spoken by the people of England, and by all who speak like them anywhere else in the world; for example, in the United States. Since our language gets its name from the people living in England, we must look a little into their history, in order to understand why we speak as we do.

2. The Early Inhabitants of England.—In early times, the country which we know as England was called Britain, and its inhabitants were called Britons. They belonged to the same Celtic (or Keltic) race which then lived in France and Spain. Their language was very different from the English, being much like what the language of Wales is at the present day. Indeed, the modern Welsh people are the descendants of these old Britons.

3. The Coming of the English into Britain.—About fifteen hundred years ago, the ancestors of the

English people came over to Britain from their homes on the northern shores of Germany, and killed or drove out of the country the Celtic people whom they found there. Then they took possession of the country, and in time formed a new nation. There were several tribes of these Germans—the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons. The name *Anglo-Saxon* is made from the names of the most powerful tribes. The Angles finally gave their name to the whole people and to the country, which came to be called *Angle-land* or *Engle-land*, and thence ENGLAND. So the people came to be known as the *Engle-ish* or ENGLISH PEOPLE.

4. Relation of English to Other Languages.—Because the English language was brought from Germany into England, being then only a dialect of the German, it is still very much like the languages of Germany. For this reason it is said to be a GERMANIC or TEUTONIC language. All the Germanic languages, together with most of the others spoken in Europe—as, for example, the French, the Spanish, the Italian, the Swedish, the Russian—and part of those spoken in Asia, as the languages of India and Persia, form a great body of languages, resembling one another, and so called a “family.” The names most often applied to this family of languages are the INDO-EUROPEAN and the ARYAN. The English language, then, belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of the Indo-European or Aryan family of languages.

5. The Norman Conquest.—In the eleventh century, the English-speaking people of England were conquered by the NORMANS, a French-speaking people. As *the two races intermingled*, the language became mixed;

so that a large part of our English comes from Germany and another large part from France, to say nothing of many words which have come from still other sources.

The Normans came from France into England under the leadership of William, Duke of Normandy, who is known in history as William the Conqueror. His victory over the English in the famous battle of Hastings, fought in 1066, was the beginning of what is known as THE NORMAN CONQUEST. The ancestors of these Normans came from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and they are often called the Northmen.

6. Spread of the English Language. — The English conquered and settled other countries besides England ; as, for example, the southern part of Scotland, and, much later, a large part of Ireland. In time, the English people became great travellers and traders and sent out colonies to all parts of the world. The colonists, of course, carried their native language with them far out of England, wherever they made their new homes. Some of these English colonies have now become great nations. That in North America especially has grown until it is as numerous a people as the English of England. The English language is now used by many more people out of England than in it; but it still keeps everywhere its old name.

7. Changes in the Language. — Our English, however, is by no means the same language that has always gone by that name. The language first brought from Northern Germany into England was so different from ours that we should not understand it at all if we heard it spoken ; and we cannot learn to read it without as much study as it takes to learn French or German. The

reason is that every living language is all the time changing. Some old words go out of use; other new words come into use; some words change their meaning; many change their spelling; and almost all change their pronunciation. Our phrases, too, the ways in which we put words together to express our thoughts, become by degrees different. Such changes are sometimes very slow; but they are all the time going on, everywhere. The English language as it may be used in centuries to come will doubtless be as different from that which we speak and write as our English is from that of several centuries ago.

8. Names by which the Language is Known.—Special names have been given to the English language as used at different periods. The earliest English that we know anything about is the English of the time of King Alfred the Great, who lived about one thousand years ago. This is commonly called the ANGLO-SAXON, to distinguish it from that of later times. Other names, such as OLD ENGLISH, EARLY ENGLISH, and MIDDLE ENGLISH, have been given to the language of times between King Alfred's and our own. When, therefore, the simple name "English" is used, it is understood to mean the language of our time, such as we ourselves speak and write.

9. Dialects of Modern English.—Not only is the English language which we speak different from that of past centuries, but it is different from that which is now spoken by people living in some other parts of the world. It is, in some little things, so unlike the language spoken in England that travellers may be easily recognized as Englishmen or Americans by the

way they talk. In almost every region where English is spoken, the language shows some peculiarities which are not noticed elsewhere. For example, there are the peculiarities of the English of Ireland, as we hear them from the Irish emigrant; and those of the English of Scotland, as we hear them from travellers, or read them in the poetry of Burns and the stories of Scott. When these peculiarities become so many and so marked that the people who use them are not readily understood by other English-speaking people, they make what is called a **DALECT** of English. Thus we speak of the "negro dialect," when we refer to the English language as spoken by the negroes of the Southern United States, and the "Yorkshire dialect," when we mean the rough English spoken by the natives of Yorkshire, England.

10. Good English and Bad English.—Wherever the English language is spoken, there is a noticeable difference between the speech of educated and uneducated persons; and a difference, though in a less degree, even among those of equal education and culture. We speak of this as the difference between "good English" and "bad English." By "good English" we mean such as is used by the *most careful* writers and speakers, the people of best education; and "bad English" is simply such as is not approved and accepted by them. It is, therefore, *the usage of educated people*, and not any book of rules, that makes the *standard* of good English.

11. Language and Grammar.—Every one who speaks any language "naturally," as we say, learns it from the people around him, as he is growing up. If he associates only with people who use the language

correctly, he unconsciously copies their good habits of speech, without knowing any *reason* for speaking as he does. On the other hand, if he associates with people who are careless or ignorant about correct usage, he naturally learns to talk as they do, without any idea of the mistakes he is making. Indeed, there are very few persons who do not acquire in early youth some bad habits of speech, which must be corrected afterwards. It is partly to help in this process of correcting errors in speech, that the approved usages of language are collected, arranged, and set forth in a book which is called a GRAMMAR. It must be understood that grammar does not make laws for language. It merely states the facts in regard to the right use of language, and in an orderly way, so that they can be easily referred to and learned.

12. English Grammar.—English Grammar may be defined as a description of those usages of the English language which are now approved by the best writers and speakers.

13. Usefulness of the Study of Grammar.—In order to use the English language correctly, it is not *necessary* to study English grammar. Indeed, many people learn to use good English simply by noticing and imitating the usage of good writers and speakers, without having any knowledge of grammar as a science. It may be asked, “Of what use, then, is the study? *What good will it do us?*” The study of grammar is useful to us because it helps and hastens the process of learning to use good English, since it sets before us the rules of good usage, with illustrations and exercises. It is especially useful to those who have been unfortunate

enough to learn at first a bad kind of English, by hearing it from the people around them.

The value of the study appears more clearly the farther we advance in language learning. Most of us wish to learn other languages than our own. We can do this more easily and accurately, if we understand how our own language is made and used; for then we can compare these other languages with it, and can more readily understand and remember wherein they differ from the English. Again, we may wish to study some of the older forms of English, and compare them with the language as now used. If we have some knowledge of modern English grammar, we shall be the better able to appreciate the fact that during all these centuries the English language has not only changed, but has developed and improved.

Besides, we may not be content with merely *using* language; we may wish to know something of what language is, and what it is worth to us. The history of language has a great deal to tell us about the history of man, and of what he has done in the world.

For all these purposes, we need to have that sort of knowledge of language to which the study of grammar is the first step, and to which a study of the grammar of our own language is the easiest and surest step.

QUESTIONS.

1. *About how many languages are spoken in the world?* From what are they named? What is the English language?
2. What was the early name of England? What were its inhabitants called? What people are descended from them? What sort of language did the early inhabitants speak?
3. When did the English come into England? From what place? How did they treat the inhabitants? Name the principal

tribes of the English. Explain the meaning of "Anglo-Saxon." Explain the origin of the names "England" and "English."

4. How was the English language at first related to the German? Why is the English called a Germanic language? Give another name for the group of languages related to the English. Give two names for the "family" to which the English language belongs. *What do these names mean?* Name some other European languages belonging to the same family with the English. What Asiatic languages belong to this family? Why is it called a "family"?

5. Where was the original home of the Normans? By what other name are they known? From what country did they come into England? Who was their leader? *Where and what is Normandy?* What is meant by "The Norman Conquest"? What language was spoken by the Normans who came into England? What two kinds of words chiefly made up the English language after the Norman Conquest?

6. Name some countries which the English conquered. What are the largest English colonies? Explain how the English language has spread.

7. Compare our English with that brought from Germany. Mention some of the ways in which a language gradually changes. *Is the English language now undergoing changes?*

8. What name is given to the English language of King Alfred's time? What names are given to the English of periods between Alfred's and our own? What is understood by the simple name "English" when applied to the language?

9. How does the English spoken in America compare with that spoken in England? *Can you mention any particular points of difference?* Mention some places where a very different sort of English is spoken from that which we use. What is a dialect?

10. What is meant by "good English"? What is "bad English"? What is the standard of good English?

11. How is any language naturally learned? How does it happen that some children learn to speak correctly and others incorrectly? What is the chief purpose of a grammar? What, in general, does the book contain? *Is grammar a science?* How is grammar related to language?

12. Define English Grammar.

13. In what respect is the study of grammar unnecessary? Why, and to whom, is it chiefly useful? How does a knowledge of English grammar help us to use good English? How does it help us to learn foreign languages? How is it useful in studying old forms of English? What are some of the things which we may learn by studying the history of language?

CHAPTER II.

THE SENTENCE: THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

14. Classification of Words.—The English language, like every other, is made up of words. Each word has its own part to take in the work of expressing our thoughts; its own meanings, and its own ways of being used with other words.

15. Use of Words in Sentences.—For example, *sun* and *snow* are the names of objects; but *shines* and *melts* are of a different kind. They are words which we put with the names of objects, in order to tell something about the objects themselves. Such statements as *Sun shines*, *snow melts*, are called DECLARATIONS or ASSERTIONS, because they *declare* or *assert* some fact. When they stand by themselves, as the complete expression of a thought, they are also called SENTENCES.

If we make longer sentences, such as

The golden sun shines brightly,
The feathery snow melts quickly,

we notice that the word *the* is not used like the words of which we have already spoken. It does not *name* anything or *declare* anything. It must, therefore, belong to some other class of words. *Golden* and *feathery* are used to *describe* the sun and the snow, and so must belong to one and the same class; and *brightly* and *quickly* belong to still another class, because they ex-

press the *manner* of shining and melting. It is plain, then, that words may be classified *according to their use in sentences*.

NAMES AND DEFINITIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

16. Parts of Speech.—The classes into which words are divided, according to their uses, are called the PARTS OF SPEECH. They will be fully described in later chapters; but for convenience they are here briefly defined.

17. A Noun is the *name* of anything. *Noun* means simply ‘*name*.’

18. It may be, for example,

- (a) The name of a person or a place; as, *Charles*, *Queen Victoria*, *China*.
- (b) The name of some object or some quality that we can see or hear or taste or smell or feel; as, *stars*, *beauty*; *music*, *melody*; *fruit*, *sourness*; *perfume*, *odor*; *heat*, *pain*, *smoothness*.
- (c) The name of some quality or idea that we merely *think of*; as, *gentleness*, *faith*, *perseverance*, *reason*, *happiness*.

EXERCISE 1.

NOUNS.

ORAL. *Point out the nouns and tell what they name.*

WRITTEN. *Copy the sentences and draw a line under each noun.*

1. October contains five Saturdays this year.
2. Roses delight us with their color and fragrance.
3. The music of the organ sounds like the roar of thunder.
4. In Mammoth Cave are found fishes that have no eyes.
5. The cold of winter and the heat of

summer are alike to him. 6. Electricity is now much used instead of steam. 7. Charles Dickens was buried in Westminster Abbey. 8. Courage is admirable, but patience is powerful. 9. A cry of pain and terror broke the stillness of the night. 10. Simplicity in dress and manners indicates refinement.

19. A Pronoun is a word which *stands for* a noun.

In speaking and writing we should find it very awkward to be continually repeating the names of persons and things; so we make use of words which are called PRONOUNS, because they take the place of nouns. *Pronoun* means '*for a noun*'.

20. A Pronoun may take the place of

- (a) The name of the person who is speaking or writing, and also of others who are associated with him; as, *I, my, me, we, us, our*.
- (b) The name of the person or persons addressed: *you, ye, thou, thee*.
- (c) The name of the person or thing that has just been mentioned; as, *he, his, him, she, her, it, its*; or, if more than one, *they, their, them*.
- (d) The name of an object that is pointed out; as, *this, that*; or, if more than one, *these, those*.
- (e) The names of objects selected from a group or class; as, *each, both, all, some*.
- (f) A name that is not known to the speaker, but is inquired for; as, *who? which? what?*

EXERCISE 2.

PRONOUNS.

ORAL. *Point out the pronouns and mention the nouns for which they stand.*

WRITTEN. *Copy the sentences, drawing a line under each pronoun and writing after each, in brackets, the noun to which it refers. Thus:*

Kate writes that she [Kate] will spend the winter in Italy if its [Italy's] climate agrees with her [Kate].

1. John's parents have received a letter from him. 2. It is long and interesting, and contains much information about Russia and its people. 3. Some of their customs are peculiar, but they are not as odd as those of the Chinese. 4. This is his first visit to the country. 5. Who went with him? 6. We do not know, but I suppose that his uncle went. 7. What was their reason for going? 8. You must ask them. 9. Their journey will be long and expensive. 10. That will not trouble them; for each has plenty of money, and both are young and strong.

21. A Verb is a word that *declares* or *asserts* something about a person or a thing. *Verb* is simply the Latin name for '*word*'.

22. It may be

- (a) A single word; as, *grow, sees, do, write.*
- (b) A phrase; that is, a combination of several words, used as a verb.

Such expressions are called VERB-PHRASES.

Ex. *Is growing, has been seen, will do, had written.*

EXERCISE 3.

VERBS.

ORAL. *Point out the verbs and the verb-phrases.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the simple verbs and two under the verb-phrases.*

- 1. Swallows sometimes build nests in chimneys. 2. Franklin was born in Boston and lived for many years in Philadelphia.
- 3. Dates grow on palm-trees. 4. Children are playing in the street. 5. The walls were covered with paintings and sculptures.
- 6. Cæsar conquered many tribes. 7. The robins have flown to their winter homes. 8. You might have written your essay.
- 9. They had been studying history. 10. John Quincy Adams was inaugurated March 4, 1825.

23. An Adjective is a word used to *qualify* or *limit* the meaning of a noun or pronoun. The name signifies something ‘*added*’ to the noun or pronoun by way of *description*.

24. It may be, for example,

- (a) A word expressing some *quality*; as, *good*, *sweet*, *stern*, *delicate*.
- (b) A word telling *how many*; as, *five*, *few*, *many*, *several*, *all*.
- (c) A word pointing out *which one* or *ones*; as, *this*, *these*, *that*, *those*, *yonder*.

25. The Articles. — The adjectives *a*, *an*, and *the*, are called the ARTICLES, and are sometimes regarded as forming a separate part of speech.

EXERCISE 4.

ADJECTIVES.

ORAL. *Point out the adjectives and tell what nouns they qualify.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the adjective and two under the word which it describes or limits.*

1. A dainty basket was filled with ripe fruit.
2. It contained golden oranges, ruddy apples, and luscious purple and white grapes.
3. Many islands have been formed by the patient labor of these tiny insects.
4. The Egyptian pyramids are gigantic piles of masonry.
5. June is the sixth month of the year.
6. There are sixteen chapters in that book.
7. The royal palace is surrounded by beautiful and extensive gardens.
8. They contain several small lakes and numerous fountains.
9. The many-colored, one-story houses are ranged along narrow streets, which cross each other at right angles.
10. Shy fishes lurk in the shady nooks of that peaceful stream.
11. A comfortable old age is the reward of a well-spent youth.

26. An Adverb is a word used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or sometimes of another adverb. *Adverb* means ‘*added to a verb*’.

27. It may tell

- (a) *How* ; as, *rapidly, fiercely, beautifully, truly*.
- (b) *When* ; as, *now, then, lately, formerly, sometimes, never*.
- (c) *Where* ; as, *here, there, everywhere, yonder, thither*.
- (d) *How much* ; as, *so, very, too, more, less, enough, quite*.

EXERCISE 5.**ADVERBS.**

ORAL. *Point out the adverbs and tell what they modify.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the adverb and two lines under the word which it modifies. If necessary, connect the adverb and the word which it modifies by drawing a curved line from one to the other; thus, We seldom think how precious are these little moments.*

1. The wind whistles shrilly through the pines.
2. People often make mistakes, and sometimes suffer for them.
3. The people of China are wonderfully industrious.
4. Salt easily dissolves in water.
5. Dead leaves are strewn everywhere, but here and there a flower may yet be seen.
6. You are not strong enough to work so hard.
7. Flocks of sea-gulls fly fearlessly about the ship, or float gracefully upon the water.
8. He is an extremely careful driver.
9. She sings very sweetly.
10. We go there very often now, and we always have a remarkably pleasant time.

28. A **Preposition** is a word that joins a noun or pronoun to some other word, showing the *relation* between them. The word *preposition* means ‘placed before.’

29. The relation may be that of

- (a) Possession ; as, *of*.

Ex. The palace *of the king* [= the king's palace].

- (b) Nearness ; as, *by, beside, with*.
- (c) Time ; as, *until, till, before, after*.
- (d) Place ; as, *above, below, behind, in, into, from* ; and so on, with various other relations.

EXERCISE 6.

PREPOSITIONS.

ORAL. *Point out the prepositions and tell what words they join.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the preposition and two under the words between which it shows a relation. If necessary, use a curved line, as in Exercise 5.*

1. The picture hangs over the mantel.
2. After dinner we will walk.
3. He hid behind the door.
4. We could not see the face of the stranger.
5. There is good fishing in the stream among the rocks.
6. We fished below the bridge.
7. Amber is brought from the shores of Germany.
8. The water rushes over a precipice into the depths of the gorge.
9. The fisherman's widow lives in a cottage by the sea.
10. Our friend will be with us before night.

30. A Conjunction is a word used to join words, phrases [see 43], or sentences. The word means '*joining together.*'

- Ex.** He spoke of the grass *and* flowers *and* trees; [Words.]
 Of the singing birds *and* the humming bees. [Phrases.]
 Life is a short day, *but* it is a working day. [Sentences.]

31. The conjunctions have various meanings, such as,

- (a) Cause or reason; as, *for*, *because*, *therefore*.
- (b) Condition; as, *if*.
- (c) Time; as, *while*, *when*.
- (d) Comparison; as, *than*.
- (e) Addition; as, *and*.

EXERCISE 7.

CONJUNCTIONS.

ORAL. *Point out the conjunctions and tell what they connect.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the conjunction and two under the expressions which it joins.*

1. The sun and moon and stars are all wonderful. 2. No time was to be wasted; for the tide was rising. 3. These animals have come from the deep woods, and the wild mountains, and the desert sands, and the polar snows. 4. I would write a letter, if I had good paper. 5. I have neither pen nor ink nor paper. 6. She suffered more than words can tell. 7. Men stared in terror while the flames rose higher. 8. The chimes ring at sunrise and at sunset. 9. Some railroads go under the rivers and over the mountains. 10. The road is rough but shady.

32. An Interjection is an exclamation used to express a feeling, as of pain, joy, fear, surprise, contempt, sadness, disgust, etc. The word means '*thrown into the midst*'.

Ex. Oh! ah! hurrah! alas! bah! pooh! pshaw!

33. Strictly speaking, the interjections are not "parts of speech" at all; because they are not combined with other words to make sentences, but are '*thrown into the midst*' of other words in the sentence, without much connection with them. For convenience, however, they are commonly included among the parts of speech.

EXERCISE 8.

INTERJECTIONS.

ORAL. *Point out the interjections and tell what feeling they express.*

WRITTEN. *Underline the interjections.*

1. Oh! I have cut my finger. 2. Oh! what fun that will be! 3. Oh! how you frightened me! 4. Alas! how hard it is to be poor! 5. Bah! what a silly performance! 6. Hurrah! vacation is here at last! 7. Pooh! anybody can do as well as that. 8. Ah! what a wonderful thought! 9. Ugh! how cold it is! 10. Ha! I've caught you now!

34. Summary of the Parts of Speech. — The parts of speech may be classified as follows: —

I. *The three main parts of speech*, the NOUN, the PRO-NOUN, and the VERB, which may form sentences without the help of the other parts.

II. *The two qualifiers*, the ADJECTIVE and the ADVERB, always put with some other word, which they describe or limit.

III. *The two connectives*, the PREPOSITION and the CONJUNCTION, which join one word or one part of a sentence to another.

IV. The INTERJECTION, which is used independently of other words.

35. A Word not always the Same Part of Speech.— Every word in our language may be included in one or another of these eight classes called parts of speech; but we must not suppose that a particular word must *always* belong to a certain class. The sense in which a word is used in a sentence determines what part of speech it is in that instance; and the same word sometimes has different uses in different sentences, or even in the same sentence. It follows, then, that a word may belong to two or more of these classes, according to its use and meaning.

Ex. *That* [adjective] bird is a thrush.

The bird *that* [pronoun] is singing is an oriole.

I thought *that* [conjunction] it was a robin.

Here are four *that's* [noun] of different kinds. [See 86]

THE SENTENCE.

36. The name “*part of speech*,” given to a word, shows that there is something *incomplete* about it; that it is not a whole, but must be joined with other “parts,” in order to make a whole, or in order to be speech. The

whole which these parts make up is the SENTENCE. A SENTENCE may be defined as *the expression of a thought.*

37. Main Parts of a Sentence.— Every assertion or sentence must have at least two parts—one naming the object about which we say something, and the other telling what we wish to say about that object. The first is called the SUBJECT; the second, the PREDICATE.

38. Order of Parts.— The subject, whether it is one word or made up of several words, is naturally placed at the beginning of the sentence and followed by the predicate; but often, and especially in poetry, the predicate comes first.

Ex. On their faces gleamed the fire-light. The usual order of words would be, *The fire-light gleamed on their faces.*

39. Bare Subject and Predicate.— If the subject or the predicate is a single word, it is called a BARE or UNMODIFIED subject or predicate.

EXERCISE 9.

BARE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

ORAL. Point out the subject and the predicate and tell what part of speech each word is.

WRITTEN. Draw one line under the subject and two under the predicate.

1. Fire burns.
2. Winds blow.
3. Gold glitters.
4. Wheat ripens.
5. Stars twinkle.
6. She laughed.
7. Smoke rises.
8. We look.
9. Rain falls.
10. I read.

Write five more sentences of this kind.

40. The Independent Parts of Speech.— From the preceding exercise it appears that the bare predicate of a sentence is always a *verb*, and the bare subject either

a *noun* or a *pronoun*; though, as we shall see later, other parts of speech may sometimes be used in the sense of nouns, and so form the subject of a sentence. Since the *noun* or the *pronoun* together with the *verb* may form sentences without the help of other words, they are called the MAIN OR INDEPENDENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

41. Complete Subject and Predicate. — Either or both parts of the sentence may contain several words, and we then speak of the COMPLETE SUBJECT OR PREDICATE.

Ex. That handsome *house* on the hill | *was* originally *built* for a chapel.

42. A Clause. — A CLAUSE is an expression containing both subject and predicate, but not making a complete sentence.

Ex. If you | go. When it | rains. What you | have written.

43. A Phrase. — A PHRASE is a combination of two or more words, not including both subject and predicate, and is used like a single part of speech.

Ex. At all events. By this time. Having no excuse.

EXERCISE 10.

PHRASES, CLAUSES, AND SENTENCES.

Write the phrases, clauses, and sentences in three columns under the proper headings.

1. By no means.
2. Unless you promise.
3. Which exploded.
4. Dynamite exploded.
5. Very careless workmen.
6. The ship sank.
7. Lost at sea.
8. Making no reply.
9. If it should storm.
10. Where the men stood.

Write five more of each kind.

44. Complement of the Verb. — Some verbs are very rarely used alone as predicates, but need to have

other words added to them, in order to make complete assertions. Words which are added to a verb in this way are called COMPLEMENTS of the verb. *Complement* means ‘*completing part.*’ The complement is almost always either a noun or an adjective. Some of the verbs which need complements are *be, seem, look, smell, sound, taste, feel.*

Ex. He is *honest*. They are *musicians*. Marble feels *smooth*.

45. Predicate Nouns.—If the complement of such a verb is a noun, it is commonly called a PREDICATE NOUN, because it helps the verb to *predicate* or assert something about the subject of the sentence.

Ex. Regulus was a *soldier*. She is a *heroine*.

46. Predicate Adjectives.—If the complement of a verb is an adjective, it is called a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE, because it not only qualifies or describes the noun or pronoun which is used as the subject, but it also helps the verb to make an assertion about the subject.

Ex. This apple tastes *sour*. The adjective *sour* describes *apple*, and at the same time makes a part of the assertion, *tastes sour*.

EXERCISE 11.

PREDICATE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

ORAL. Point out the subject, the predicate, and the complement.

WRITTEN. Mark bare subject and predicate as in Exercise 9. Draw a wavy line under the complement, and write below it a letter to show whether it is a noun or an adjective; thus, He has been a sailor.

“

1. You are industrious.
2. The moonlight looks silvery.
3. Milton was a poet.
4. These violets smell sweet.
5. He looks happy.
6. The king was a tyrant.
7. The problem

seems easy. 8. Her china is old-fashioned. 9. They are Americans. 10. We have been idle.

Write five other sentences.

47. Object of a Transitive Verb. — In the sentences ‘John *drew*,’ ‘The farmer *keeps*,’ and ‘They *saw*,’ the predicate seems unfinished, and we naturally ask, *What did John draw? What does the farmer keep? What or whom did they see?*

If we say, ‘John drew a *picture*,’ ‘The farmer keeps *turkeys*,’ ‘They saw the *President*,’ or ‘They saw *him*,’ we complete the meaning of the verb. The words *picture*, *turkeys*, *President*, and *him* must therefore be another kind of COMPLEMENT. Such a complement is called the OBJECT of the verb, and the verb which requires an object to complete its meaning is called a TRANSITIVE VERB. *Transitive* means ‘*going over*,’ and the name implies that the action expressed by the verb *goes over* from the subject to the object.

EXERCISE 12.

OBJECT ADDED TO TRANSITIVE VERB.

ORAL. *Point out subject, predicate, and object.*

WRITTEN. *Mark subject, predicate, and complement, as in Exercise 10.*

1. He published a history.
2. She lighted the lantern.
3. The Romans built ships.
4. The rain refreshes the grass and flowers.
5. Mr. Rogers owns a yacht.
6. The English conquered the French.
7. We visited the museum.
8. A servant has brought the message.
9. They are attending a lecture.
10. Bees collect honey.

48. Modifiers of Subject and Predicate. — Words and phrases which are added to the bare subject and predicate are, in general, called MODIFIERS, because

they *modify*, that is, ‘change somewhat’ the meaning of the subject and predicate, and so of the sentence itself. The COMPLETE SUBJECT therefore consists of the bare subject together with its modifiers; the COMPLETE PREDICATE, of the bare predicate together with its complement or modifiers.

EXERCISE 13.

ADJECTIVES ADDED TO THE SUBJECT.

ORAL. Point out bare subject and predicate, the complement, if there is one, the complete subject, and the adjective modifiers.

WRITTEN. Mark as before the bare subject and predicate, and the complement, and draw three lines under the adjectives. In this and the remaining exercises in this chapter, draw a vertical line to separate the complete subject from the complete predicate; thus, The old white horse | is a dead.

1. The yellow gold glitters.
2. This white rose is beautiful.
3. These seven men were prisoners.
4. Smooth white paper is used.
5. A little brown hand grasps the sword.
6. Dark heavy clouds cover the sky.
7. A large black dog carried her basket.
8. A golden throne was erected.
9. The old red house was deserted.
10. All good true men are noblemen.

49. Prepositional Phrases. — We have learned [Art. 28] that a preposition is a word which is “placed before” a noun or a pronoun so as to show a certain relation between that noun and pronoun and some other word in the sentence. The noun or pronoun before which it is placed is called the OBJECT of the preposition. The preposition together with its object forms a *Prepositional Phrase*, which may be used like an *adjective* or an *adverb* to modify other words in the sentence.

Ex. A crown of gold was presented. The prepositional phrase is used like an adjective describing *crown*. *A crown of gold* means the same as *a golden crown*.

She walks *with grace* means the same as She walks *gracefully*. *With grace* is a prepositional phrase, used like an *adverb*, telling *how* she walks.

EXERCISE 14.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES ADDED TO SUBJECT OR PREDICATE.

ORAL. Point out the prepositional phrase and tell what it modifies.

WRITTEN. Inclose the prepositional phrases in curves, marking the other parts of the sentence as in preceding exercise; thus, The bright stars | twinkle (in the sky).

1. A hot fire of coals burns in the grate.
2. A clock of brass ticked on the mantel.
3. The air is thick with mist.
4. The red leaves of the maple fall from the tree to the ground.
5. Ice melts in the heat of the sun.
6. The black smoke rises in the air from the tall chimney.
7. We go to school in the morning.
8. The cave among the rocks was the home of a family of foxes.
9. The brook flows under the bridge, between the meadows, and through the woods.
10. The death of Lincoln caused deep sorrow throughout the country.

EXERCISE 15.

ADVERBS ADDED TO THE PREDICATE.

ORAL. Point out the adverbs and explain their use.

WRITTEN. Inclose the adverbs in brackets, marking other parts as before; thus, Cold winds | blow [keenly.]

1. The hungry dog barked loudly.
2. The moon smiles calmly down upon the earth.
3. The time passed very rapidly.
4. The next day was uncomfortably warm.
5. He gives advice and money freely.
6. The city was suddenly buried beneath showers of ashes.
7. The guide bravely led the way.
8. She is naturally impatient.
9. Such things often happen here.
10. I have finished the letter now.

EXERCISE 16.

CONJUNCTIONS USED TO CONNECT SENTENCES (Clauses).

ORAL. *Point out the conjunctions and explain their use.*

WRITTEN. *Place one sentence under the other with the conjunction between; thus,*

They | laughed [loudly]
but
we | were silent.
 a

1. The curling blue smoke rises in the air because it is light.
2. You will surely succeed if you try. 3. We must make hay while the sun shines. 4. The children called, but no voice replied.
5. The sun rose and sank, and the battle still raged. 6. Blessed are the meek; for they shall inherit the earth. 7. The earth revolves, yet we do not feel its motion. 8. They listened with attention while I spoke to them. 9. The children ran to the playground when the bell rang. 10. Many years have passed since the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

50. We have learned the classes of words and some of the ways in which the various parts of speech may be used in sentences. In order to test our knowledge, we shall find it good practice to choose words and phrases and put them together in an orderly way so as to make sentences.

EXERCISE 17.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

1. Write a list of five nouns. *Ex. Flowers.*
2. Use each as the subject of a verb. *Ex. Flowers bloom.*
3. Qualify each noun by an adjective. *Ex. Beautiful flowers bloom.*
4. Modify each verb by an adverb. *Ex. Beautiful flowers bloom here.*
5. Modify subject and predicate by prepositional phrases. *Ex. Beautiful flowers of springtime bloom here in the woods.*
6. Use conjunctions in subject and predicate. *Ex. Bright and beautiful flowers of springtime bloom here in the woods and fields.*

EXERCISE 18.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

Write sentences containing the following words :—

1. *Fly*, used as a *noun* and as a *verb*.
2. *Clear*, used as a *verb* and as an *adjective*.
3. *Light*, used as a *noun*, as a *verb*, and as an *adjective*.
4. *Sail*, used as a *noun* and as a *verb*.
5. *Storm*, used as a *noun*, as a *verb*, and as an *adjective*.

EXERCISE 19.

SENTENCE-MAKING.

1. Write five nouns as the subjects of transitive verbs.
Ex. Sexton rang.

2.. Complete the verb by adding an object limited by the adjective *the*. *Ex. Sexton rang the bell.*

3. Modify the subject by two adjectives. *Ex. The old sexton rang the bell.*

4. Modify the subject by a prepositional phrase. *Ex. The old sexton of the church rang the bell.*

5. Modify the verb by an adverb. *Ex. The old sexton of the church rang the bell lustily.*

6. Modify the verb by a prepositional phrase. *Ex. The old sexton of the church rang the bell lustily at sunrise.*

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

51. Since the sentence is the expression of a thought, it may be in the form of an assertion, a question, or a command. There are, therefore, three varieties of simple sentences :—

52. 1. The **Assertive** or **Declarative Sentence**, which states a fact or an opinion.

Ex. *Air is lighter than water. Honest work is no disgrace.*

53. 2. The Interrogative Sentence, which asks a question.

Ex. *What are the wild waves saying?*

54. 3. The Imperative Sentence, which expresses a request or a command.

Ex. *Give me a glass of water. March on to the attack.*

55. Form of the Interrogative Sentence. — The form of the INTERROGATIVE sentence is different from that of the Assertive sentence, the subject noun or pronoun being usually placed *after* the verb. Sometimes the sentence begins with some question-asking word, such as *how*, *what*, *which*, or *why*. Sometimes there is nothing to distinguish it from an Assertive sentence except the tone of voice, in speaking, or the interrogation mark at the end, in writing.

Ex. *You are sure about that?*

The sentence, printed in this way, is understood to mean, *Are you sure about that?*

56. Subject of the Imperative Sentence. — The IMPERATIVE sentence does not often have a subject expressed. The pronoun *you* may commonly be supplied as the subject of the verb.

57. Exclamatory Sentences. — Sentences belonging to any of these classes may be called EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES if they express surprise, delight, pain, disgust, or other strong feeling. Such a sentence should be followed by an exclamation point.

Ex. (a) *How beautiful is night!* The Assertive sentence, 'Night is beautiful,' is here so changed in form as to express wonder and admiration.

(b) *Who would have thought it!* This is, in form, an Interrogative sentence, but the speaker does not expect a reply. He means,

to say that *nobody* would have thought it. The sentence is Exclamatory, expressing surprise.

(c) *O, bury me not in the deep, deep sea!* The Imperative sentence is here made Exclamatory, expressing dread and entreaty.

EXERCISE 20.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

*To which of the three classes does the sentence belong?
Is it Exclamatory? If so, what feeling does it express?*

1. Beautiful Evelyn Hope is dead!
2. Queen Elizabeth was the last of the Tudor sovereigns.
3. Where is the true man's fatherland?
4. How welcome is the rain!
5. On the wide lawn the snow lay deep.
6. Oh, why should the spirit of mortal be proud?
7. Delightful are the long evenings of winter.
8. Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
9. O mighty Cæsar, dost thou lie so low?
10. Ring out, wild bells, to the wild sky!

EXERCISE 21.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

1. Write an Assertive sentence about glass.
2. Write an Interrogative sentence about Mexico.
3. Write an Imperative sentence addressed to a servant.
4. Write an Imperative sentence expressing a polite request.
5. Write an Assertive sentence about light.
6. Change this assertion to the form of a question.
7. Write an Assertive sentence, and then change it to the Exclamatory form.
8. Write an Interrogative sentence that shall be also Exclamatory.
9. Write an Imperative and Exclamatory sentence.
10. Write an Interrogative sentence, and then change it to the *form of an assertion*.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II.

In each sentence, point out the bare subject and predicate with their several modifiers. Tell what part of speech each word is. Read the complete subject and predicate of each sentence, and tell what kind of sentence it is.

1. Still sits the schoolhouse by the road.
2. Full knee-deep lies the winter snow.
3. Keep, oh keep that young heart true!
4. Blessed are the peacemakers.
5. By the yellow Tiber was tumult and affright.
6. Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.
7. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
8. Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
9. Who would not be a Roman?
10. We silently gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.
11. The beautiful fern of the summer lies in rusty patches on
the open hillside, though within the woods it is still fresh and
green.
12. The night was stormy; yet the clang
Of hammers through the darkness rang.
13. On the cross beam, under the Old South bell,
The nest of a pigeon is builded well.
14. Its birches whisper to the wind,
The swallow dips her wings
In the cool spray, and on its banks
The gray song-sparrow sings.
15. The sun stepped down from his golden throne
And lay in the silent sea,
And the Lily had folded her satin leaves,
For a sleepy thing was she:
What is the Lily dreaming of?
Why crisp the waters blue?
See, see, she is lifting her varnished lid!
Her white leaves are glistening through.

CHAPTER III.

NOUNS.

NOTE.—In this and in later chapters, some exercises are given without specific directions for writing. If it is desired to have the class write the exercises, the teacher should give clear and definite directions when the lesson is assigned.

58. A Noun is simply a name. Anything which we can put before our minds in such a way as to say something about it must be called by a name, and that name is a NOUN.

59. It may be

(a) The name of something which we perceive by our senses.

Ex. *ball, tree, thunder, odor, flavor.*

(b) The name of a part of an object.

Ex. *head, top, side, surface, end.*

(c) The name of the material of which an object is made.

Ex. *flesh, silk, wood, silver, rubber.*

(d) The name of a thing which we only think of, but do not see, or hear, or feel.

Ex. *mind, soul, God, heaven.*

(e) The name of a quality or condition of an object.

Ex. *truth, beauty, space, absence, color, weight.*

(f) The name of an action.

Ex. *thinking, running, to walk, to read.*

(g) The name of an animal, a person, or a place.

Ex. *Fido, Alice, John Quincy Adams, Jerusalem, Australia.*

60. Test of a Noun.—There are so many nouns, and they are so different in kind, that we sometimes need to *try* a word in order to be sure whether it is really the *name* of something. For example, if we wish to determine whether *skating* is a noun, we must see if it has any of the principal uses of a noun :—

1. If it is used as the subject of a sentence.

Ex. *Skating* is good exercise.

2. If it is the object of a verb.

Ex. I like *skating*.

3. If it is the object of a preposition.

Ex. Are you fond of *skating*?

4. If it is qualified by an adjective.

Ex. There is *good skating* on the lake.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

61. Two Great Classes of Nouns.—A Noun is generally the name given to each member of a whole class of similar things, as *man*, *dog*, *city*, *country*, *day*, *month*, *planet*; but in some classes the individuals are important enough to have each a separate name to distinguish it from others of the same class; as, for example, *Napoleon*, *Rover*, *Paris*, *China*, *Tuesday*, *September*, *Jupiter*. All nouns may, therefore, be said to be either CLASS-NAMES or INDIVIDUAL NAMES.

62. Proper Nouns.—Names which belong to *individuals* of a class are called PROPER NOUNS. The word *proper* comes from a Latin word meaning ‘*one’s own*.’ Proper nouns should begin with capitals.

63. Common Nouns. — All other names may be called COMMON NOUNS, because they are *class-names*, that is, names owned *in common* by a number of things of the same kind.

EXERCISE 22.

PROPER NOUNS AND COMMON NOUNS.

ORAL. *Which of these nouns are class-names? Which are individual names?*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under each Common noun and two under each Proper noun.*

1. Book. 2. Elm. 3. Begonia. 4. Fern. 5. Dictionary.
6. Harry. 7. Christmas. 8. Star. 9. Bird. 10. Mississippi.
11. Cloud. 12. Italy. 13. Metal. 14. December. 15. Flower.
16. Niagara. 17. Saturn. 18. Paper. 19. Sunday. 20. Picture.

64. Collective Nouns. — Some common nouns signify a *collection* of single things. These are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

Ex. *team, gang, crowd, tribe, army, nation, family, swarm, flock, herd, class, committee, fleet, suite, group.*

EXERCISE 23.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

Write sentences containing the preceding examples of Collective Nouns, so constructing the sentences as to show of what kind of objects each collection is composed.

Ex. John drives a *team* of horses.

65. Abstract Nouns. — Some common nouns are the names of *qualities, conditions, and relations* of objects. They are called ABSTRACT NOUNS, because we *abstract* ('draw off, separate') the qualities, conditions, etc., from the objects to which they belong, and think of them as if they had a separate existence.

Ex. *place, brightness, nearness, distance, height, number, truth.*

66. Verbal Nouns. — The names of actions, such as *dancing, striking, to run, to skate*, are often called VERBAL NOUNS. We shall learn more about them in the chapter on Verbs.

EXERCISE 24.

ABSTRACT AND VERBAL NOUNS.

ORAL. Point out and describe the Abstract and the Verbal nouns.

Write a list of the names of qualities.

Write a list of the names of conditions.

Write a list of the names of actions.

Swiftness, grace, despair, courage, sweetness, creeping, fidelity, color, magnificence, slumber, fluency, growth, poverty, rest, pride, romping, heat, size, exhaustion, studying, sound, to read, rejoicing, stupor, hilarity.

67. Gender Nouns. — Some nouns, both common and proper, are the names of living beings and imply a difference in sex. Those that denote males are called MASCULINE NOUNS, or nouns of the masculine gender.

Ex. *man, son, king, uncle, hero, Francis.*

Names that denote females are called FEMININE NOUNS, or nouns of the feminine gender.

Ex. *woman, daughter, queen, aunt, heroine, Frances.*

68. Neuter Nouns. — Nouns which do not belong to either of these classes are sometimes called NEUTER NOUNS ('neither gender').

They may be divided into two groups:—

(a) Names which convey no idea of sex.

Ex. *sun, day, tree, stone, hair, color.*

(b) Names which may be applied to either males or females.

Ex. *child, dog, chicken, fish, mosquito.*

69. Feminine Nouns ending in ess. — Many feminine nouns are similar in form to the corresponding masculine nouns, but have the ending *ess*. Some nouns denoting occupations, such as *poet*, *author*, and *waiter*, are often applied to females, instead of the regular feminine nouns, *poetess*, *authoress*, and *waitress*.

EXERCISE 25.

GENDER NOUNS.

Write the Feminine Nouns which are formed from the following: —
 Giant, emperor, heir, hermit, count, god, host, Jew, lion, tiger, priest, prince, prophet, governor, shepherd, tailor, adventurer, actor, duke, murderer, master, traitor, sorcerer, negro, votary.

70. Words from Foreign Languages. — Some nouns derived from foreign languages have irregular ways of denoting gender.

Ex.

MAS.	FEM.	MAS.	FEM.
executor,	executrix.	Monsieur,	Madame.
administrator,	administratrix.	Signor,	Signora.
testator,	testatrix.	Don,	Donna.
hero,	heroine.	Charles,	Charlotte.
beau,	belle.	Augustus,	Augusta.
czar,	czarina.	Joseph,	Josephine.
sultan,	sultana.	Louis,	Louisa.

71. Gender indicated by a Word placed before the Noun. — Some nouns have the gender indicated by distinguishing nouns or pronouns placed (usually) before them.

Ex.

MAS.	FEM.	MAS.	FEM.
man-servant,	maid-servant.	he-goat,	she-goat.
man,	woman (^{-wife-} _{man}).	he-wolf,	she-wolf.
bull-calf,	cow-calf.	cock-turkey,	hen-turkey.
pea-cock,	pea-hen.	cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.

72. Different Words for the Masculine and Feminine.— Sometimes the difference of sex is expressed by the use of different words.

Ex.

MAS.	FEM.	MAS.	FEM.
bachelor,	maid or spinster.	wizard,	witch.
earl,	countess.	drake,	duck.
gander,	goose.	stag,	hind.
horse,	mare.	youth,	maiden.
king,	queen.	monk, friar,	nun.
lord,	lady.		

EXERCISE 26.

GENDER NOUNS AND NEUTER NOUNS.

ORAL. *Point out the gender nouns, and give the opposite of each.
Point out the nouns which imply either sex.*

Fly, nephew, angel, Henrietta, game, stepson, Jesse, bride, widow, editor, person, conductor, laundress, bird, baker, Julius, schoolmaster, doctor, ewe, lad, spirit, landlord, peacock, cousin, cashier, hart, artist, traveller.

EXERCISE 27.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

WRITTEN. *Arrange the nouns in columns under the headings Proper, Common, Collective, Abstract, and Gender Nouns, repeating the same noun, if necessary, in one or more columns.*

Iron, ugliness, council, Emily, mob, beauty, regiment, choir, Martin Luther, depth, bevy, duck, noise, chair, Broadway, motion, drove, Moses, country, Germany, couple, peace, child, corpse, Saturday, goodness, learning, administratrix.

NOUNS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FORM.

73. The classes of nouns which we have just noticed are distinguished by difference in their *use* and *meaning*. We have now to notice the classification of nouns ac-

cording to their *form*. Nouns are divided according to their form into three classes, SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

74. Simple Nouns. — Simple nouns are such as we cannot take apart into yet simpler elements.

Ex. *sun, man, boy, hope, chair, family.*

75. Derivative Nouns. — Derivative nouns are such as are made by adding syllables to other simpler words now in use in our language.

76. Prefix. — A syllable which is placed before a word to make a new word is called a PREFIX. The word means '*fixed or fastened on in front.*'

Ex. *un-belief, dis-grace.*

77. Suffix. — A syllable which is placed at the end of a word to make a new word is called a SUFFIX. The word means '*fixed or fastened on at the end.*'

Ex. *organ-ist, mission-ary, hero-ism.*

78. Sometimes Derivative nouns contain both prefixes and suffixes.

Ex. *un-truth-ful-ness.*

79. Compound Nouns. — Compound nouns are such as are made up of two or more words which are separately in use in our language.

Ex. *housetop, inkstand, steamboat, blackberry, pickpocket.*

80. Diminutives. — Some Derivative nouns indicate objects of small size, or animals not fully grown. These nouns are called Diminutives (words showing something *diminished*, or made smaller).

Ex. *gosling, a young goose; lambkin, a young lamb; hillock, a little hill; brooklet, a little brook; bootee, a little boot; lassie, a young lass; Johnnie, little John.*

EXERCISE 28.

FORM OF NOUNS.

- (a) Write a list of the Simple Nouns.
- (b) Write a list of the Derivatives.
- (c) Write a list of the Compounds.
- (d) Write a list of the Diminutives.

sunrise	Englishman	runaway	man-servant
untruth	blue-stocking	book	seashore
street	counters	washtub	merchant-tailor
nonsense	Frankie	sub-cellar	after-thought
darling	foolishness	boyhood	butterfly
ex-president	grace	owlet	bird
manliness	dishonesty	lawyer	rainbow
streamlet	ungracefulness	napkin	railway
sailor-boy	security	heroine	flower
beggar	drawbridge	ill-will	goatee
grindstone	quicksilver	spendthrift	under-current

INFLECTION.

81. The change made in the form of a word, either to show changes of its own meaning, or to adapt it to be used along with other words, is called its INFLECTION. The word means '*bending into a different shape*'; and the word thus varied in form is said to be *inflected*.

82. Inflection of Nouns.— Nouns are inflected or varied in form, to express differences of NUMBER and of CASE. This inflection of a noun is called its DECLEM-
SION.

NUMBER.

83. The Two Number-Forms.— There are two number-forms: the SINGULAR, used when only one thing of a kind is meant; and the PLURAL (Latin *plus*, '*more*'), used when more than one are meant.

Ex. Singular, *tree*; plural, *trees*.

84. Regular Rule for Forming Plurals. — English nouns regularly form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular. Sometimes this additional letter has the usual sound of *s*, as in *hats*; and sometimes it has the sound of *z*, as in *hoes*.

85. Plurals Ending in es. — Nouns ending in the sound of *s*, *x*, *z*, *sh*, *ch* or *zh*, form their plurals by adding *es*, pronounced as another syllable. If the word ends in a silent *e*, *s* only is added.

Ex. *kiss, kisses; horse, horses; ice, ices; topaz, topazes; prize, prizes; fish, fishes; church, churches; bridge, bridges.*

It will be seen that this is but a slight variation of the regular rule.

EXERCISE 29.

NUMBER.

Write the plurals of these nouns.

House, gulf, song, place, safe, grass, hymn, tack, car, match, fox, badge, cake, lathe, nose, truth, fence, larch, fire, tax, chair, truce, size, branch, mat, wish, fez, cap, bush, cough, arch, sign.

IRREGULAR PLURALS.

86. Letters, Figures, and Signs. — Letters, figures, and signs form their plurals by adding '*s*'. This is true also of words which are *spoken of* in such a way as to seem like nouns.

Ex. Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.
Do not make your *3's* and *5's* so much alike.
Make your *+'s* and *-'s* larger.
He uses too many *I's* and *me's* and *my's*.

87. Nouns Ending in *f* or *fe*. — Some few nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by changing the

f or fe to ves. Other nouns ending in **f** or **fe** are regular.

Ex. *calf, calves; self, selves; sheaf, sheaves; wharf, wharves; knife, knives.*

REGULAR. *puff, puffs; cliff, cliffs; fife, fifes; roof, roofs.*

88. Nouns Ending in y.—Nouns ending in **y after a consonant** add **es** for the plural, changing the **y** to **i**. Nouns ending in **y after a vowel** form their plurals regularly.

Ex. *pony, ponies; lady, ladies; valley, valleys; boy, boys.*

89. Nouns Ending in o.—Some nouns ending in **o after a consonant** add **es** to form the plural, but most nouns ending in **o** are regular.

Ex. *cargo, cargoes; potato, potatoes; echo, echoes.*

REGULAR. *bravo, bravos; canto, cantos; zero, zeros.*

90. Nouns from Foreign Languages.—Many nouns taken from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages.

Ex. *phenomenon, phenomena; analysis, analyses; beau, beaux; radius, radii; formula, formulæ; index, indices; cherub, cherubim.*

Many of these words, being in very common use, have also regular English plurals, which are more commonly used than are the foreign ones.

Ex. *formulas, indexes, cherubs.*

91. Plurals Ending in en.—A few nouns form their plurals by adding **en**, with or without other changes.

Ex. *ox, oxen; brother, brethren (or brothers); child, children.*

92. Plurals Formed by Internal Changes.—A few nouns form their plurals by internal changes of spelling and of sound, instead of by any ending.

Ex. *man, men; foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice.*

93. Same Form for Both Numbers.—Some nouns have, either generally or in certain senses, the same form for either the singular or the plural number.

Ex. *sheep, deer, trout, shad, yoke, pair, head* (of cattle), *sail, canon, shot, heathen.*

94. Nouns Used Only in the Singular.—Some nouns, such as abstract nouns and names of materials, are rarely used except in the singular.

Ex. *peace, beauty, clay, flesh.*

In certain senses, however, the regular plurals are sometimes used.

Ex. The *clays* and *gravels* of the West; the *beauties of form.*

95. Nouns Used Only in the Plural.—Certain nouns are always used in the plural.

Ex. *ashes, bellows, tongs, tidings, scissors, trousers, mumps, measles, victuals, vitals, entrails, annals, nuptials, obsequies, thanks, riches, archives.*

96. Plural Nouns Used in the Singular Sense.—Some nouns which are plural in form are singular in meaning.

Ex. *news, means, gallows, pains* (care), *mathematics, politics, optics, wages, amends.*

EXERCISE 30.

NUMBER.

Write the plurals of these nouns.

Money, piano, waif, buffalo, jelly, mouse, volcano, thief, cameo, story, tooth, leaf, fairy, buoy, whiff, chimney, lily, radius, hero, ally, alley, ruby, tornado, muff, motto, enemy, chief, solo, turkey, ox, cry, cuff, wharf, lady, portfolio, soliloquy, veto, attorney, mosquito, pulley, portico, index, wife, child, daisy, embryo, cargo, hoof.

97. Plurals of Proper Nouns.—Most proper nouns form their plurals regularly.

Ex. The *Germans*; all the *Smiths*; the *Joneses*; both *Queen Marys*; the two *Gen. Jacksons*; any of the *Henrys* of England; either of the *Mrs. Browns*; the *Shakespeares* and *Miltons* of our time.

98. Titles.—When we wish to refer to several members of the same family, we may give the plural form to the *title*, instead of to the name.

Ex. The *Misses Blackman*; the *Messrs. Irving*.

99. The title is also made plural when it is used with several names.

Ex. *Gens. Grant and Sherman*; *Drs. Carey and Field*; *Misses Mary, Alice, and Edith Browning*; *Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.*; *Presidents Cleveland and Harrison*.

100. Plurals of Compound Nouns.—Compound nouns *generally* add the sign of the plural to that part of the word which is *limited* or *described* by the other part.

Ex. *blackbirds*, *merchantmen*, *house-tops*, *steamboats*, *hangers-on*, *brothers-in-law*, *knights-errant*, *commanders-in-chief*.

101. Some words, originally compounds, are no longer regarded as such, and are treated as simple words.

Ex. *mouthfuls*, *handfuls*, *spoonfuls*.

102. It should be noticed that *German*, *Mussulman*, *Ottoman*, *Turcoman*, and *talisman* are not compounds of *man*. They form their plurals by adding *s*.

103. Some few compounds make both parts of the word plural.

Ex. *men-servants*, *knights-templars*.

104. Nouns with Two Plural Forms.—Some nouns which may be used in two senses have two plural forms, distinct in meaning.

- Ex.** *penny, pennies* (coins); *pence* (value).
brother, brothers (same family); *brethren* (same association).
fish, fishes (separately); *fish* (collectively).
genius, geniuses (men of genius); *genii* (spirits).
index, indexes (table of contents); *indices* (algebraic signs).
pea, peas (by number); *pease* (by quantity).
cloth, cloths (kinds); *clothes* (garments).

EXERCISE 31.

NUMBER.—FOREIGN NOUNS.

Write the plurals of the following nouns, and explain the meaning of each.

Alumnus, bandit, genus, Monsieur, larva, parenthesis, crisis, stratum, terminus, synopsis, datum, fungus, nebula, effluvium, vertebra, erratum, cactus, vertex, focus, appendix, axis, oasis, radius, phenomenon, ellipsis, beau, hypothesis.

EXERCISE 32.

NUMBER.—DERIVATIVES AND COMPOUNDS.

Write the plurals of the following nouns, and explain the formation of each.

Cupful, dormouse, pianoforte, woman-servant, aide-de-camp, son-in-law, court-martial, Frenchman, jack-in-the-pulpit, go-between, post-master-general, graybeard, looker-on, gentleman, Mussulman, pick-pocket, Ottoman, shell-fish, foot-ball, man-of-war, tooth-brush, goose-quill, forget-me-not.

EXERCISE 33.

NUMBER.

Write sentences containing these nouns used in such a way as to show the number of each noun.

1. amends.
2. assets.
3. dozen.
4. aborigines.
5. suds.
6. species.
7. hose.
8. measles.
9. oats.
10. pair.
11. wages.
12. corps.
13. series,
14. family.
15. goods.
16. clergy.
17. militia,

CASE.

105. Case-Forms.—Besides the number-forms, which show changes in *the meaning of the word itself*, a noun has also what are called CASE-FORMS, showing *its relation to other words in the sentence*.

106. Nominative Case.—A noun which is used as the *subject* of a verb may be said to be in the *Subjective Case*; but we commonly use instead the old Latin name, NOMINATIVE (or ‘*naming*’) CASE.

107. Objective Case.—A noun which is used as the *object* of a verb or of a preposition is said to be in the OBJECTIVE CASE.

The Latin name for this case is the ACCUSATIVE.

108. Same Form for Both Cases.—The objective case of the noun has precisely *the same form* as the Nominative case.

Ex. The *trees* are bent by the storm. [Nominative.]
The storm bends the *trees*. [Objective.]

In many of the pronouns, however, we have different forms for these two cases.

Ex. *They* are bent by the storm. [Nominative.]
The storm bends *them*. [Objective.]

109. Possessive Case.—The POSSESSIVE CASE of the noun is so called because it most often shows *possession* or ownership, as in the phrase ‘*John’s horse*.’ Sometimes it shows *origin*, as in ‘*Baker’s Cocoa*,’ and sometimes it tells *what kind*, as in ‘*Men’s and Youths’ Overcoats*.’ The Possessive case-form is usually written by adding to the common form an apostrophe and s [‘s].

GENITIVE CASE is the name given to this form in other languages.

110. Possessive Case Equivalent to Objective with the Preposition. — The Possessive Case of the noun has commonly almost the same meaning as that of the noun after the preposition *of*.

Ex. *Men's souls* = the souls of *men*;
children's toys = the toys of *children*.

Sometimes, however, we use both the preposition and the possessive form of the noun; for example,

I will show you *a picture of my brother's*;
He is *a servant of the general's*.

This is a peculiar idiom of the English language, and is sometimes very difficult to explain. It occurs also with pronouns. [See 152.]

A picture of my brother's may mean one of several that he has made or that he owns; that is, *One [picture] of my brother's [pictures]*. But *One of my brother's pictures* may mean also *A picture of my brother*; that is, a likeness or portrait of him, which may or may not be in his possession. It seems, then, that the phrase *A picture of my brother's* expresses a different shade of meaning from *A picture of my brother*.

Again, we may say, *A servant of the general's*, even when we know that the general has only one servant; and *a picture of my brother's*, when he has but one picture.

111. Only Two Case-Forms. — As we have seen, English nouns have only two case-forms: the Possessive form, which commonly shows possession; and the form which is used in all other relations. We need now to study only the Possessive Case, in order to understand the complete declension of a noun.

RULES FOR THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

112. Possessive Case of Singular Nouns. — The possessive case in the singular number is made by adding 's. This is pronounced sometimes like s, as in *cat's*, sometimes like z, as in *dog's*, and sometimes it makes an additional syllable, as in *Charles's*.

113. If a singular noun of more than one syllable ends in an s or z sound, the possessive sign is sometimes omitted, to avoid the disagreeable repetition of hissing sounds. In writing such a noun, the apostrophe alone is placed at the end of the word.

Ex. The *princess'* favorite; for *conscience'* sake.

114. Possessive Case of Plural Nouns. — Plurals not ending in s form their possessive case in the same way as singular nouns.

Ex. *mice's, sheep's, men's, children's.*

115. Plurals ending in s make no change in pronunciation for the possessive case, but are written with an apostrophe after the s.

Ex. *cats', horses', teachers', judges'.*

EXERCISE 34.**POSSESSIVE CASE.**

Write both singular and plural possessive forms.

Man, woman, gentleman, lady, boy, girl, wife, child, baby, brother, deer, mouse, ox, hero, son-in-law, Frenchman, valley, colony, thief, dwarf, princess-royal, Mr. Perkins, Miss Hawkes, Mrs. Green.

116. Possessive Case of Compounds. — In compound nouns, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of the whole compound, of whatever kind it may be.

Ex. His *brother-in-law's* position; the commander-in-chief's orders.

117. Possessive Case of Phrases.—The rule just given applies also in the case of a combination of two names, of a name preceded by a title, of a noun preceded or followed by descriptive or limiting words, and so on.

Ex. *George Washington's hatchet; Peter the Hermit's preaching; Queen Elizabeth's ruff; Thomas Robinson Esquire's residence; his dead master Edward's memory; at my cousin William Thompson's; somebody else's fault.*

EXERCISE 35.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

Change to the form of the possessive case.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. The rod of Moses. | 14. The record of the ball-
players. |
| 2. The barking of the dogs. | 15. The house of thy servant
David. |
| 3. The fire of Phœbus. | 16. The residence of my father-
in-law. |
| 4. The works of Dickens. | 17. The conquests of Alexander
the Great. |
| 5. The greetings of the Friends. | 18. The appointments of the
postmaster-general. |
| 6. The stings of the bees. | 19. The crown of the King of
France. |
| 7. The family of Mr. Hastings. | 20. The execution of Mary
Queen of Scots. |
| 8. The convention of teachers. | |
| 9. The signature of the author. | |
| 10. The decision of the judges. | |
| 11. The disciples of Socrates. | |
| 12. For the sake of righteousness. | |
| 13. The army of Xerxes. | |

118. Nouns Denoting Joint Possession.—If two or more possessive nouns imply *joint possession* of the same thing, and are connected by *and*, the possessive sign is used only with the last noun.

Ex. *Lee and Foster's store; Mason and Hamlin's organs.*

119. Nouns Denoting Separate Possession.—If *separate possession* is implied, or if the nouns are con-

nected by *or* or *nor*, each one takes the possessive sign.

- Ex.** But little time elapsed between *Grant's and Sheridan's death*.
 Is that a *boy's or a girl's hat*?
 It was *neither England's nor Holland's conquest*.

EXERCISE 36.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

Write in the form of the possessive case.

1. The home of Mary and Martha.
2. The homes of Alice and James.
3. The friendship of David and Jonathan.
4. The dictionaries of Webster and Worcester.
5. The factory of Wheeler and Wilson. [*Joint possession.*]
6. The stores of Macy and Huyler. [*Separate possession.*]
7. The pianos of Ivers and Pond. [*Joint possession.*]
8. The pianos of Chickering and Steinway. [*Separate possession.*]
9. The history of Green, Froude, or Macaulay.
10. The reigns of Elizabeth and Mary.
11. The reign of William and Mary.
12. The poems of Longfellow or Whittier.
13. The operas of Gilbert and Sullivan. [*Joint possession.*]
14. The armies of Grant and Sherman.
15. The administration of Taylor and Fillmore.
16. The administrations of Buchanan and Lincoln.
17. The excursions of Raymond and Cook. [*Separate possession.*]
18. The typewriters of Remington and Hammond. [*Separate possession.*]
19. The line of Mason and Dixon. [*Joint possession.*]
20. The crew of Yale or Harvard.

120. Person of Nouns.—Pronouns have a kind of inflection showing whether *the speaker* is meant, *the person spoken to*, or *the person or thing spoken of*; but nouns have no such distinction. A noun used as a sub-

ject always takes the verb in the *third person*, even when the noun refers to the speaker or the person spoken to.

Ex. The *subscriber* gives notice = *I* give notice.
Is your *honor* well? = Are *you* well?

121. Complete Declension of Nouns.—From the following diagram it will be seen that nouns have only *four forms*, — two number-forms, and two case-forms.

Number.. .	{ Singular. Plural.
Case.....	{ Common. } Nominative. { Possessive. } Objective.

122. Examples of Declension.—

	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.	SING.	PLU.
<i>Nom. and Obj.:</i>	man,	men;	dress,	dresses;	cat,	cats.
<i>Possessive:</i>	man's,	men's;	dress's,	dresses' ;	cat's,	cats'.

EXERCISE 37.

DECLENSIONS.

Write the declension of these nouns.

Bee, mosquito, book, breeze, cliff, prince, horse, wife, sofa, solo, sky, scarf, chimney, Pharaoh, King Henry.

USES OF THE NOUN.

123. Thus far in this chapter we have spoken of the four principal uses or *constructions* of the noun; namely,

1. As the *subject* or “*subject-nominative*” of a *verb*.

Ex. *Music* soothes the weary listener.

2. As the *object* of a *transitive verb*.

Ex. The two boys made a birch *canoe*.

3. As the *object of a preposition*.

Ex. He sent his sons to college.

4. As *denoting possession*.

Ex. This is the *mayor's message*.

There are other common uses of the noun, some of which we shall now notice.

124. Predicate Nominative. — A noun which is used with the predicate, to *complete* an assertion by qualifying the subject of the verb, is called a PREDICATE NOUN or PREDICATE NOMINATIVE. [See 44.] The PREDICATE NOMINATIVE refers to the same person or thing as the SUBJECT NOMINATIVE, and they are in *the same case*. The verb which joins them is either an intransitive verb [See 261] or a passive verb-phrase. [See 350.]

Ex. The captain *became* an *infidel*. [Intransitive verb.]

He *was elected* *governor*. [Passive verb-phrase.]

125. Appositive. — A noun which is used after another noun in such a way as to *describe* or *explain* the first is called an APPPOSITIVE or a NOUN IN APPPOSITION with the first. '*Appositive*' means '*set alongside of*'. The *Appositive* modifies the first noun somewhat as an adjective does, but it is not so closely connected with the noun which it modifies. The two nouns may be said to be in *the same case by Apposition*. The case may be either nominative, possessive, or objective.

Ex. Milton, the blind *poet*, wrote "Paradise Lost." [Nominalive.]

We left the card in Mr. Cary's, the *secretary's*, hands. [Possessive.]

Virginia was named in honor of Elizabeth, the virgin *queen*. [Objective.]

EXERCISE 38.

APPOSITIVES AND PREDICATE NOMINATIVES.

Point out the nouns which are in the same case, and tell whether it is by predication or by apposition.

1. These savages are called cannibals.
2. They had been friends in youth.
3. John Howard Payne wrote the favorite song, "Home, Sweet Home"; and Drake is best known by his patriotic poem, "The American Flag."
4. Books are the legacies of genius.
5. The great American statesman, Daniel Webster, was born in New Hampshire.
6. Rome, "the Eternal City," is built on both sides of the Tiber.
7. Audubon was a celebrated naturalist.
8. Washington has been styled "The American Fabius."
9. In the centre of Indian Territory there is a large district called, in the Indian language, Oklahoma, the "Beautiful Land."
10. Daniel De Foe, the creator of "Robinson Crusoe," was the author of over two hundred and fifty works.

126. Nominative of Address. — Some languages have a special form called the VOCATIVE CASE, used in *direct address* to a person or thing. In English there is no such special form of the noun, but the construction is known as the NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS. The noun of address is not a part of the subject or the predicate, but stands by itself, like an interjection.

Ex. *Ye stars, shine on ! See here, my friend !*

127. Nominative of Exclamation. — Nouns are sometimes used independently in exclamations where there is no direct address to a person or thing. This construction may be called the NOMINATIVE OF EXCLAMATION. These nominatives are also sometimes called the NOMINATIVE INDEPENDENT.

Ex. *Scotland ! There is magic in the sound.*

EXERCISE 39.

NOMINATIVES OF ADDRESS AND OF EXCLAMATION.

Point out the nouns used independently, and tell whether they are nominatives of address or of exclamation.

1. Old year, you must not die!
2. Give me of your boughs, O Cedar!
3. Poor Tom! he was a sad coward.
4. Come back, come back, Horatius!
5. The Pilgrim Fathers! where are they?
6. A man overboard! What matters it?
7. O the long and dreary winter!
8. Liberty! Freedom! Tyranny is dead!
9. O night and storm and darkness! ye are wondrous strong!
10. Happy, proud America! The lightnings of heaven yielded to your philosophy!

128. Nominative Absolute. — The construction known as the NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE, or the noun used with the participle, cannot be fully explained here, since we have not learned the forms and uses of participles. [Chaps. VI. and XI.]

Ex. The *trumpet* having sounded, both sides rushed to arms.

129. Indirect Object. — There are certain uses of the noun (or pronoun) which represent another case. This was formerly distinguished in English by having a different form from the nominative, possessive, and objective, and is still so distinguished in many languages. In English it is called the INDIRECT OBJECT, or the DATIVE-OBJECTIVE. In other languages it is called the DATIVE CASE.

The INDIRECT OBJECT denotes *to whom* or *for whom* an act is performed, it being equivalent to the objective after the preposition *to*, or, more rarely, the preposition *for*.

Ex. I sent my *friend* a book = I sent a book *to my friend*. *Friend* is the INDIRECT OBJECT of the verb *sent*; and *book* is the DIRECT OBJECT.

He made the *captain* a coat = He made a coat *for the captain*. *Captain* is the INDIRECT OBJECT; *coat*, the DIRECT OBJECT.

EXERCISE 40.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS.

ORAL. *Point out the direct and indirect objects.*

WRITTEN. *Draw one line under the direct object and two under the indirect.*

1. Gather her a bouquet of roses.
2. He paid the men their wages.
3. He told them many strange stories of the sea.
4. Find me a better pen.
5. The major handed the servant his card.
6. Send us a carriage in time for the train.
7. We forgive our friends their faults.
8. I will write him a receipt in full.
9. Cut me a yard of cloth from this piece.
10. I bring thee here my fortress-keys.

130. Adverbial Objective. — Nouns which express *measure*, either of time, distance, weight, number, age, or value, etc., may be used like *adverbs*, to qualify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. They may then be called **ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVES**.

- Ex.** They walked a *mile*. [Qualifies the verb *walked*.]
 The pole was five *feet* long. [Qualifies the adjective *long*.]
 You should have come a *day* earlier. [Qualifies the adverb *earlier*.]

131. There is now no special case-form for this construction; but we know, from the forms in older English and in other languages, that the case of the noun is the objective. Besides, we can often use a preposition to connect such a noun with the word which it qualifies.

- Ex.** He waited an *hour* = He waited *for* an *hour*.
 It is three *acres* larger = It is larger *by* three *acres*.
 He died last *night* = during last night.
 The word is pronounced both *ways* = in both ways.
 They ran full *speed* = at full speed.

EXERCISE 41.

ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVES.

Point out the adverbial objectives and explain their use.

1. The river is a mile broad here.
2. Our friends came last night.
3. They watched all day long.
4. The temple faces both ways.
5. He lives a long way off.
6. The house cost twenty thousand dollars.
7. He has crossed the ocean six times.
8. The mountain is nearly eight thousand feet high.
9. The obelisk was made ages ago.
10. It will be all the same a hundred years hence.

132. Objective Predicate.—We have learned [124] that a predicate noun is one which, being added to the verb, forms part of the assertion about the *subject* of the verb; one that is made, through the verb, to describe or qualify the subject. But sometimes the noun is brought into the same sort of relation to the *direct object* of the verb, describing or qualifying the object.

Ex. Her companions chose her *queen*.

EXERCISE 42.

OBJECTIVE PREDICATE.

Point out the nouns used as objective predicates.

Change the sentence, making the same noun a predicate nominative: thus, She was chosen queen by her companions.

1. They call the Emperor "Father."
2. The people elected him mayor.
3. Who made him umpire?
4. The church appointed their pastor delegate to the convention.
5. The herald proclaimed him king.
6. Elizabeth made Raleigh a knight.
7. The boys called him a coward.
8. The president appointed Gen. Grant commander-in-chief.
9. The Turks call their ruler Sultan.
10. Whittier's admirers have styled the poet "The Wood-thrush of Essex."

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS NOUNS.

133. Substantives.—Words that are not properly nouns, also phrases and clauses, may be used in sentences with the value of nouns. They are then said to be used *substantively* or as SUBSTANTIVES. SUBSTANTIVE is only another name for a noun.

134. Adjectives Used as Nouns.—Adjectives are often used as nouns. The following are some of the most common instances:—

(a) Adjective used as an abstract noun in the singular number.

Ex. Choose the *good*, the *true*, and the *beautiful*—meaning *that which is good*, etc.

(b) Descriptive adjective used as a plural noun referring to persons.

Ex. How sleep the *brave*! [The *men* who were *brave*.]

(c) Adjective derived from a proper noun and referring to a certain country, race, sect, party, or language.

Ex. The *Americans*; a *Lutheran*; a *Stoic*; the *Asiatics*. Say it in *French*. The *English* is our mother-tongue.

135. Adverbs Used as Nouns.—Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions, in the sense of nouns.

***Ex.** Since *then*; from *hence*; till *now*.

136. Infinitives Used as Nouns.—The infinitives of verbs are really verbal nouns. [See 283.]

Ex. To *hear* is to *obey*. *Seeing* is *believing*.

137. Phrases Used as Nouns.—Phrases are often used substantively.

Ex. “*Too late*” is a sad verdict. [Subject.]

He was discharged for *neglect of duty*. [Object.]

His purpose is to *lead an honest life*. [Pred. Nominative.]

138. Clauses Used as Nouns.—Sometimes a combination of subject and predicate is used as a noun.

Ex. *What happened* is of no consequence now.

The saddest of words are, "*It might have been.*"

139. Words Referred to Merely as Words.—A word of any kind may be regarded as a noun, when we refer to it merely as a word, or quote it from a sentence.

Ex. He promised without an *if* or a *but*.

"*Loved*" is a verb.

When I was young — ah! woful *when*!

EXERCISE 43.

SUBSTANTIVES; NOUNS USED AS OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

Point out words, phrases, and clauses used substantively.

Point out nouns used as other parts of speech.

1. There was mounting in hot haste. 2. Crossing the Alps was then a stupendous undertaking. 3. He shows no regard for the right. 4. *Was* is the past tense of *be*. 5. A rose tree grew by the garden wall. 6. The dollar sign looks somewhat like a *U* and an *S*. 7. What he thinks does not concern me. 8. I gave him all I had. 9. Giving brings better interest than hoarding [does]. 10. Goodness! I haven't even a postal. 11. They listened with many *oh's* and *ah's*. 12. It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill. 13. There is a long list of the killed and wounded. 14. O stern word, Nevermore! 15. Waves mountain high broke over the reef. 16. We shall meet in "the sweet By-and-by." 17. There the wicked cease from troubling. 18. Those that think most govern those that toil. 19. It is but a step from the sublime to the ridiculous. 20. "Ay, ay, sir!" burst from a hundred throats.

140. What is Meant by Parsing.—To parse a word is to give a complete description of it as it stands in the

sentence of which it forms a part. The description should always tell these three things about a word:—

1. ITS KIND; what part of speech it is, and to what *class* of nouns, adjectives, etc., it belongs.
2. ITS FORM; what number, case, etc., it has, if it is inflected. It is proper, also, to tell whether the word is simple, or derivative, or compound, though this part of the description is commonly omitted.
3. ITS CONSTRUCTION; what relation it has to other words in the sentence, whether subject or object or predicate-nominative, etc.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING NOUNS.

141. In parsing a noun, we should tell —

1. The *class* to which it belongs.
2. The *gender*, if it is a gender-noun.
3. The *number*.
4. The *declension*. [This may be omitted in oral parsing.]
5. The *case*.
6. The *construction* (use in the sentence).

At first, it is well to give the *reason* for every statement that is made in the parsing; but later, when we have become so familiar with the reasons that the repetition is tedious, we may omit them. In the following examples, the briefer style of parsing is used.

EXAMPLES.

Salt Lake City, the capital, which is about sixteen hundred miles distant from Chicago, was then an unbroken wilderness; but the entire valley now blossoms as the rose, through the industry of the peculiar people who have made it their home.

1. *Salt Lake City* is a proper noun; singular number; nominative case; the subject of the verb *was*.

2. *Capital* is a common noun; singular number; the inflected forms are *capital*, *capital's*, *capitals*, *capitals'*; nominative case; in apposition with *Salt Lake City*. [125]

3. *Miles* is a common noun; plural number; the inflected forms are *mile*, *mile's*, *miles*, *miles'*; objective case; adverbial objective, modifying the adjective *distant*. [130]

4. *Chicago* is a proper noun; singular number; objective case; object of the preposition *from*.

5. *Wilderness* is a common noun; singular number; nominative case; predicate nominative, completing the assertion made by the verb *was* and qualifying *Salt Lake City*, the subject of the verb. [124]

6. *Valley* is a common noun; singular number; the inflected forms are *valley*, *valley's*, *valleys*, *valleys'*; nominative case; the subject of the verb *blossoms*.

7. *Rose* is a common noun; singular number; the inflected forms are *rose*, *rose's*, *roses*, *roses'*; nominative case; the subject of the verb *does*, understood.

8. *Industry* is an abstract noun; singular number; objective case; object of the preposition *through*.

9. *People* is a collective noun; plural number; objective case; object of the preposition *of*.

10. *Home* is a common noun; singular number; inflected forms, *home*, *home's*, *homes*, *homes'*; objective case; objective predicate noun, completing the assertion of the verb *made* and qualifying *it*, the direct object of *made*. [132]

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. The jury give their verdict.
2. It was Pentecost, the feast of gladness.
3. Man became a living soul.
4. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
5. The earth is the Lord's.
6. Cowards die many times before their deaths.
7. "The Campaign" was a poem in honor of Marlborough's victory at Blenheim.

8. Time makes the worst enemies friends.
9. He giveth his beloved sleep.
10. History casts its shadow far into the land of song.
11. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!
12. She moves a goddess and she looks a queen.
13. Hundreds have jostled her by to-night,
 The rich, the great, the good, and the wise.
14. James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy, a tyrant, a
murderer, and a usurper.
15. The soldier's last day's march is over.
16. A French king was brought prisoner to London.
17. Necker, financial minister to Louis XVI., and his daughter,
Madame de Staël, were natives of Geneva.
18. In Thackeray's characters we see our own faults reflected ;
in Dickens's we see our neighbors'.
19. Truth-teller was our England's Alfred named.
20. Industry is the demand of nature, of reason, and of God.
21. The wind ! the wind ! it well may charm
 The rudest soul to rest.
22. The warbling of birds, the murmuring of streams, the
enamel of meadows, the coolness of woods, the fragrance of flow-
ers, contribute greatly to the pleasures of the mind.
23. Hail ! king of the wild and the beautiful !
24. A few miles from this point, where the Rhone enters the
lake, stands the famous Castle of Chillon, connected with the shore
by a drawbridge — palace, castle, and prison, all in one.
25. Abbotsford, the home of Sir Walter Scott, has been called
“a Gothic romance embedded in stone and mortar.”
26. Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting . . .
 Heaven lies about us in our infancy.
27. Every *why* hath a *wherefore*.
28. O Solitude ! where are the charms
 That sages have seen in thy face ?
29. He looks a sachem in red blanket wrapt.
30. 'Tis heaven itself that points out an hereafter.
31. Many people know the value of a dollar who do not appre-
ciate the value of one hundred cents.
32. Herodotus is called the Father of History.
33. Thy soul was like a star and dwelt apart.

34. Education is a better safe-guard of liberty than a standing army.
35. Men called the steamboat "Fulton's Folly."
36. Let me hear thy shouts, thou happy shepherd boy.
37. Burr had shot Hamilton, his political opponent, in a duel.
38. The President granted the prisoner a full pardon.

CHAPTER IV.

PRONOUNS.

142. A Pronoun is, as we have seen, a kind of *substitute* for a noun.

Ex. Washington was the father of *his* [Washington's] country.

143. Difference between Nouns and Pronouns.—In general, pronouns have the same uses that nouns have in making sentences. There are two points of difference which we must notice:—

(a) A pronoun does not really *name* anything, as a noun does. It simply *points out* some person or thing that has been named before, or that is shown by a gesture.

Ex. *It* happened during the Revolution. *That* is my picture.

(b) A pronoun is not commonly qualified by an adjective placed directly before it. For example, we say,

a man, but not *a he*;

these men, but not *these we*;

good men, but not *good they*;

but we may say, *These few* are all I can find.

144. Distinction between Pronouns and Adjectives.—Some of the words which are used as pronouns may be used also as adjectives. If the word qualifies a noun that is expressed, it is an adjective; if it stands for a noun that is omitted, it is a pronoun.

Ex. *This man* is my father. [Adjective.]
This is my father. [Pronoun.]

145. Classes of Pronouns. — Pronouns are divided into five classes : —

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.
2. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.
3. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.
4. RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.
5. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

146. Inflection of Pronouns. — Pronouns have, in general, the same inflection as nouns ; namely, for *number* and *case*. Some of them have for the objective case a special form, different from the nominative. The inflection of a pronoun is also called its DECLEMNION.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

147. Personal Pronouns. — It has been said [120] that nouns have no distinction of *person* ; but it will be seen that some pronouns have one form to denote *the speaker*, another to denote *the person spoken to*, and a third to denote *the person or thing spoken of*. Such pronouns are called PERSONAL PRONOUNS, because they especially mark differences of *person*.

Ex. *I* write. [First person ; denotes *the speaker*.]

You write. [Second person ; denotes *the person spoken to*.]

He writes. [Third person ; denotes *the person spoken of*.]

148. Irregular Inflection of Personal Pronouns. — The personal pronouns are very irregular in their inflection. The plurals are different words from the singulars ; the possessives usually have double forms and are not made like those of nouns ; both possessives and objectives are sometimes different words from the nominatives ; and one of the pronouns makes a distinction of *gender*.

EXERCISE 44.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Draw one line under the pronouns which denote the speaker, two lines under those which denote the person spoken to, and three lines under those which denote the person or thing spoken of.

1. Will you tell me a story?
2. Give your flowers to him.
3. Let them come to my house.
4. We will reward you for your kindness to them.
5. Thou art the man.
6. They treat us coldly.
7. Ye are the light of the world.
8. I have his book, not hers.
9. Here are theirs and yours, but I cannot find mine.
10. Thy word is a lamp to my feet.
11. New England, we love thee.
12. Our wills are ours to make them thine.

FIRST PERSON.

149. Declension of the Pronoun of the First Person. — The pronoun of the first person is thus declined [or inflected] :—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we
<i>Poss.</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us

150. Meaning of Plural Forms. — The plural forms signify the speaker himself together with the person or persons spoken to; or the speaker himself together with any group or company of whom he is one.

Ex. *We* [you and I] must not quarrel.

We [I with my companions] took a long walk.

We [Americans] live in the Western Hemisphere.

We [human beings] have the power of speech.

151. Plural Form with Singular Meaning. — *We, our, ours, us,* are sometimes used by a single speaker concerning himself alone. *Ourself* is sometimes used in the same way. [See 164.]

Ex. [By a sovereign.] *We*, Victoria, Queen of England, do make this proclamation.

Ex. [By an editor or contributor to a newspaper or magazine.] *We* have *our* doubts about the wisdom of such a measure.

152. The Two Possessive Forms.— *Our* is used before a noun, and *ours* when no noun is expressed.

Ex. This is *our* house.

This is my uncle's house, and the next one is *ours*.

The preposition *of* is sometimes used with the possessive forms of personal pronouns, as with those of nouns. [See 110.] For example:—

He is a friend of *ours*; not, He is a friend of *us*.

That is a dress of *mine*; not, That is a dress of *me*.

SECOND PERSON.

153. Declension of the Pronoun of the Second Person.—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	thou	ye, you
Poss.	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj.	thee	you

154. Uses of the Singular Forms of the Second Person.— The pronouns *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, are no longer used in ordinary conversation, as they were in former times; but they are kept for higher and more serious uses, especially in poetry and in prayer.

Ex. *Thou* comest, Autumn, heralded by the rain.

O *Thou* to whom all creatures bow.

155. Use of Ye.— The plural nominative form *ye* is used in much the same way.

Ex. O night and darkness, *ye* are wondrous strong.

O *ye* hard hearts, *ye* cruel men of Rome!

156. Pronoun Used as the Nominative of Address.

— *Thou* and *ye* (or *you*) are often used like nouns in the vocative case or the nominative of address, as in the preceding examples.

157. Use of You. — *You* was formerly used only in the objective case. It is now the common pronoun of address, both nominative and objective, and whether we speak to one person or more than one. Since *you* is properly a plural pronoun, it takes a plural verb when it is a subject, even though only one person is addressed.

Ex. *You* are mistaken — never *you* is.

You were sorry — never *you* was.

158. Meaning of Plural Forms. — Sometimes the plural form of the second person signifies two or more persons addressed, and sometimes it refers to *one* or more persons addressed, together with others who belong in one company with them.

Ex. *You* [my companions] must listen to me.

You [Germans] are a nation of scholars.

THIRD PERSON.**159. Gender in the Pronoun of the Third Person.**

— The pronoun of the third person distinguishes not only number and case, but, in the singular, gender also. We use one pronoun when the object referred to is a male, another when it is a female, and still another when it is of neither sex, or when the sex is not a matter of importance. The first form is called the MASCULINE because it stands for a masculine gender-noun; the second FEMININE, because it stands for a feminine gender-noun; and the third NEUTER, because it stands for any noun that is *neither* masculine nor feminine.

160. Declension of the Pronoun of the Third Person. —

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
MAS.	FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom. he	she	it	they
Poss. his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Obj. him	her	it	them

161. Use of He and She. — By the use of *he* and *she* we mark a distinction of sex —

- (a) In those creatures in which the difference of sex is important; and especially in human beings.
- (b) Sometimes in personified objects. For example, we speak of the sun as *he*, and the moon or the earth as *she*.

162. Gender of Pronouns Referring to Animals. — We sometimes use *he* and *she* with reference to the lower animals, without any intention of being exact about their sex. For example, we use *he* with reference to the dog, and *she* with reference to the cat, because of certain *qualities* which seem to us masculine or feminine, as the case may be. More often, however, we use the pronoun *it* in speaking of the lower animals, their sex not being of enough importance to be noticed. So, too, we use *it* with reference to *child*, *baby*, *infant*, etc., because these are not gender nouns, and the sex is either unknown or disregarded.

163. Special Uses of It. — *It* has a variety of special uses. The most important are the following: —

- (a) *It* often stands as the subject of a verb, instead of the phrase or clause which is the real subject, and which is then put after the verb.

Ex. *It is doubtful whether he will come.*
It is sweet for one's own land to die.

That is, —

Whether he will come is doubtful.
To die for one's own land is sweet.

In such sentences *it* is called the GRAMMATICAL SUBJECT, and the phrase or clause is called the LOGICAL SUBJECT; that is, the subject according to the real meaning, or *logic*, of the sentence.

(b) *It* often stands as the IMPERSONAL SUBJECT of a verb, not signifying any real subject, but helping the verb to express an act or condition without reference to any actor.

Ex. *It* rains. *It* was cold. *It* grew dark fast. *It* will soon strike ten. Is *it* far to London? *It* came to blows between them.

(c) Sometimes *it* is used as the IMPERSONAL OBJECT of a verb.

Ex. They footed *it* through the streets. He lorded *it* over his servants.

164. Compound Personal Pronouns. — The word *self* is added to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, and *it*, and the plural *selves* to *our*, *your*, and *them*, thus forming a class of COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS, which have two principal uses: —

(a) To express emphasis, either alone, or with the simple pronoun.

Ex. He thinks of no one but *himself*. I *myself* saw it.

(b) As the reflexive object of the verb; that is, an object denoting the same person or thing as the subject.

Ex. I dress *myself*. They saw *themselves* deceived. You will hurt *yourself*.

The simple pronoun is sometimes used reflexively.

Ex. He laid *him* down.

Ourself and *yourself* denote a single person; *ourselves* and *yourselves* more than one.

EXERCISE 45.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Arrange these pronouns in three columns, according to the person, heading the columns "First," "Second," and "Third." Tell what is the number and case of each pronoun; also which are the gender-pronouns.

I, you, me, thine, their, our, it, him, us, ye, thou, theirs, your, thee, hers, he, them, ours, they, my, she, his, mine, we, yours, her, thy, its.

EXERCISE 46.

SPECIAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Explain the use of the Italicized pronouns.

1. *It* is well to think before you speak.
2. The boys are roughing *it* in the woods.
3. I laid *me* down and slept.
4. They held *themselves* in readiness to march at a moment's notice.
5. *It* was a long way to the sea-coast.
6. Columbus *himself* thought that America was a part of Asia.
7. The king replied, "*Ourself* will pardon him."
8. We have met the enemy, and *they* are *ours*.
9. The infant held a nation's destiny in *its* feeble grasp.
19. By the fall of Quebec, France lost *her* hold on America.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

165. The Demonstrative Pronouns are those which point out or direct attention to any person or thing. The only demonstrative pronouns are the following:—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
this	these
that	those

166. Inflection. — All these words are used both as nominative and objective cases, and they have no possessive.

167. Uses of the Demonstrative Pronouns. —

- (a) *This* and *these* are used to mean something nearer to the speaker; *that* and *those*, something farther off.
- (b) *That* and *those* are used in place of a noun which would otherwise have to be repeated along with a phrase describing it.

Ex. My horse and *that* [not *it*] of my neighbor.
That is, my horse and *the horse of my neighbor*.

- (c) The demonstrative pronouns are often used with nouns, thus having the value of adjectives. They are then called **DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.**
[234]

Ex. *That* flower is a daisy. *These* men are Spaniards.

168. Herewith and Therewith. — The compounds *herewith* and *therewith* may be used as demonstrative pronouns.

Ex. I send you *herewith* [=with this] a copy of the letter.
Seizing the booty, he departed *therewith* [=with that].

EXERCISE 47.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

Draw one line under the demonstrative pronouns and two lines under the demonstrative adjectives.

1. This word is a noun.
2. That is a verb, and these are adjectives.
3. This is the place.
4. Gold and silver are found among these mountains.
5. That happened before those records were published.
6. Pointing to her sons, Cornelia said, "These are *my jewels*."
7. May that peace never again be broken!
8. The

tree was covered with its own blossoms and with those of a vine that had climbed upon its branches. 9. This world is our working-place; that, our resting-place. 10. The tempest spares the home of the wealthy planter no more than that of his humblest slave.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

169. The Interrogative Pronouns are those that ask questions.

They are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *whether*.

They are used in interrogative sentences; and their usual place is as near as possible to the beginning of the sentence.

Ex. *Who* comes here? *Which* of us does he seek? *What* does he want?

170. Declension of Who.—The interrogative pronoun *who* is thus declined:—

SINGULAR OR PLURAL.

Nom. who

Poss. whose

Obj. whom

171. Inflection of the Other Interrogative Pronouns.—The other interrogative pronouns have no forms of declension, and are used only as nominatives and objectives. *Which* and *what* are either singular or plural; *whether* is singular only.

Ex. *Which* is your book? *What* is his reason?

Which are your books? *What* are his reasons?

172. Whether is rarely used now, being an old-fashioned word for ‘which one of two.’

Ex. *Whether* is greater, the gift or the altar?

173. Distinction between Who and What.—*Who* is used with reference to persons; *what* may be used

with reference to anything else, whether living beings or inanimate things.

- Ex.** *Who* gave you permission?
What is that running across the road?

174. Use of Which. — *Which* may apply to either persons or things. It differs from *who* and *what* in being *selective*; that is, it implies that the right one is to be picked out from a number or group of individuals.

- Ex.** *Which* of these three boys is the strongest?

175. Which and What used as Interrogative Adjectives. — *Which* and *what* are the only interrogative pronouns which may be used with the value of adjectives. When so used, they may be called **INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.** [235]

- Ex.** *What* kind of fruit do you like best?
Which army won the battle?

EXERCISE 48.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

Draw one line under the interrogative pronouns and two lines under the interrogative adjectives.

1. Which is the wiser course? 2. What message shall I send?
3. Who wrote "The King's Highway"? 4. Whose hand painted the flowers of the meadow?
5. What has the gray-haired prisoner done?
6. Whether of them twain did the will of his father?
7. What good will it do?
8. Whom seek ye in this forest?
9. Which of the queens of England were buried in Westminster Abbey?
10. What man is free from sin?

RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

176. The demonstrative pronoun *that* and the interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are also used in

a way which is called "relative"; and, when so used, they are known as RELATIVE or CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

177. Antecedent of the Relative. — The relative pronoun is so called because it refers or *relates* to a noun or another pronoun in the same sentence. Since this noun or pronoun is generally placed before the relative in the sentence, it is called the ANTECEDENT ('one going before') of the relative.

Ex. *The gift which you ask shall be bestowed.*

178. Uses of the Relative Pronoun. — The relative pronoun introduces a separate clause, which has a subject and predicate of its own and which describes or limits the antecedent. The relative is sometimes called a CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN, because it is used like a conjunction to join this descriptive clause to the antecedent.

179. Relative Clauses. — A clause which is introduced by a relative pronoun may be called a RELATIVE CLAUSE. When it is used in the sense of a noun, it is called a NOUN CLAUSE; and when it has the value of an adjective, it is called an ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

Ex. *I know what you think.* [Noun Clause, used as the object of the verb.]

The birds that built in this tree last year have returned. [Adjective Clause, pointing out *which birds*.]

180. Complex Sentences. — The relative pronouns are used only in what are called COMPLEX SENTENCES. A complex sentence is one which is made up of one simple sentence (or clause) and one or more dependent clauses, combined either by these relative pronouns, or by conjunctions, into one whole.

Ex. *This vine, which has been growing for three years, bears no grapes.*

This is a complex sentence, made up of the simple sentence, *This vine bears no grapes*, and the relative clause, *which has been growing for three years*. This relative clause is said to be "dependent," because it does not, by itself, make complete sense.

EXERCISE 49.

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Divide the complex sentence into two clauses, marking the bare subject and predicate of each clause. Place the relative clause under the other, in such a way that the relative is directly below its antecedent. Connect the relative and its antecedent by a brace, in order to show that their relation is what binds the two clauses into one sentence.

Ex. The church that was destroyed by fire has been rebuilt.

The church } | has been rebuilt.
that } | was destroyed by fire.

If the relative belongs not to the subject but to the predicate of the clause in which it stands, the words must be rearranged to show this relation.

Ex. The man whom we met looked like a sailor.

The man } | looked like a sailor.
we | met whom }

1. The city to which I refer is Constantinople.
2. It was Noah Webster who made the famous dictionary.
3. The evil that men do lives after them.
4. He who would search for pearls must dive below.
5. Read to us the last letter which she wrote.
6. The king of whom I speak was a child of nine years.
7. It is I who should ask pardon.
8. The boy whose knife was lost has bought another.
9. The love of money, which has been called "the root of all evil," causes untold misery.
10. The settlers of Plymouth, who are known to us as "the Pilgrim Fathers," laid the foundations of religious liberty in America.

EXERCISE 50.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

Rewrite the sentences, using adjective clauses in place of the adjectives.

Ex. I like black ink. I | like ink }
 which } is black.

Explain (orally) why each new sentence is complex.

1. The prize was given to the most faithful boy.
2. Ripe, rosy-cheeked apples lay under the tree.
3. A very learned man made this mistake.
4. A peddler found the lost bag of money.
5. Entertaining books often do more harm than good.
6. The doctor bought a three-year-old colt.
7. Many of the Pacific islands are the work of coral insects.
8. Among the gifts were a Turkish rug and a Japanese screen.
9. By the roadside is a never-failing spring.
10. Industrious people never have too long a day.

181. Use of Who. — The relative *who* is inflected like the interrogative *who*, and is generally used only with reference to persons.

Ex. The man *who* was [or the *men who were*] recently with us, *whose* character we respected, *whom* we loved, and with *whom* we shared joys and sorrows, has [or *have*] been taken from us.

182. Use of Which. — *Which* is applied to living creatures that are not persons, and to things.

Ex. We have the letter *which* he wrote.
Show me the butterfly *which* you caught.

Which was, in former times, applied to persons.

Ex. Our Father *which* art in heaven.

183. Whose as the Possessive of Which. — *Whose* is often used as the possessive of *which*.

Ex. A tale *whose* lightest word would harrow up thy soul.
Many persons think it better to use of *which*, since *whose* is not properly a form of the pronoun *which*.

184. Use of That. — *That* is a very general relative. It may be used instead of either *who* or *which*, referring to either persons or things, and to one or more than one.

Ex. One of the best men *that* [*who*] ever lived. [Plural.]
The head *that* [*which*] wears a crown. [Singular.]

185. *That*, when used as a relative, does not follow a preposition.

In the phrases *to that*, *from that*, *with that*, etc., the pronoun *that* is not relative, but demonstrative.

Ex. From *that* [demonstrative] came the story *that* [relative] we heard.

The first *that* is used to *point out*, as we may see if we place after it some noun, as “From *that remark*,” or “From *that circumstance*.”

186. The relative *that* is sometimes used as the object of a preposition which comes at the end of the sentence.

For example, we may say, —

The book *that* I told you of, or
The book *which* I told you of; but only
The book *of which* (*not of that*) I told you.

187. Use of What. — *What* does not have an antecedent actually expressed in the sentence, but it contains within itself both antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which* (*that* demonstrative and *which* relative). *What* is not used of persons.

Ex. *What* [*that which*] you say is true.
I saw *what* [*that which*] he was doing.

188. Compound Relatives. — *What* may be called a COMPOUND RELATIVE, since it combines the office of antecedent and relative. In older English, *that* was often used in the same way.

Ex. Do *that* is righteous.

Who and *which* are often used in a similar way, with no antecedent expressed. *Which* has then the same selective force that it has as an interrogative pronoun.

Ex. We well know *who* did it, and *whose* fault it was, and *whom* people blame for it, and *which* of them most deserves blame.

EXERCISE 51.

NOUN CLAUSES.

Rewrite the sentences, using noun clauses instead of the phrases in *Italics*. Separate the compound relative into the antecedent and simple relative, and write the compound relative beside the brace.

Ex. I know *your wishes*. I | know that } ^{wishes}
you | wish which } ^{that}

It will then be shown that the demonstrative pronoun *that* is the antecedent of the relative *which*, and is also the object of the verb *know*.

1. She always tells *the truth*.
2. *The Venetians* use boats instead of carriages.
3. He told us *his dream*.
4. We saw a model of *Solomon's temple*.
5. I am acquainted with the book, but not with *its author*.
6. They listened eagerly to *the words of the prophet*.
7. The captain paid no attention to *the passers-by*.
8. The prisoner acknowledged *his guilt*.
9. Few of us really appreciate *the value of time*.
10. We have just heard of *the general's death*.

EXERCISE 52.

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Point out the antecedent of each relative, the subject and predicate of each relative clause, and tell whether each is a noun clause or an adjective clause.

1. They found arrow-heads that were made by the Indians.
2. You see what comes of disobedience.
3. What is right must be done.
4. The trees which bend over the river are willows.
5. I know what happened to the king's army.
6. The man who

hesitates is lost. 7. That you will be sorry some day is my prophecy. 8. In the second conflict with England, which is often called the War of 1812, Winfield Scott was the hero of the North. 9. The day which had been appointed for the burial was stormy. 10. Many animals that live in the Arctic regions have white fur.

189. Personal Pronoun as Antecedent of the Relative.—If the antecedent of the relative is a pronoun of the first or the second person, the relative, if used as a subject, takes the verb in the corresponding person. The same is true if the antecedent is a noun or pronoun in the vocative case.

Ex. *I, who am* your friend, tell you so.
To thee, who hast thy dwelling here on earth.
Dark anthracite, that reddeneſt on my hearth! [Vocative.]

190. Indefinite Relative Pronouns.—The INDEFINITE RELATIVE PRONOUNS are made by adding *ever* or *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*. *Whoso* is the old form of *whosoever*. These are called INDEFINITE RELATIVES, because they mean ‘*any* one, *any* thing, *any* one of them.’

Ex. *Whoever* did it ought to be ashamed.
He will give you whichever you want.
They overthrow whatever opposes them.
Whoso seeth his brother have need, etc.

191. Omission of the Relative That.—The relative *that*, when used as the object of a verb or of a preposition following a verb, is very often omitted, the descriptive clause being left without any introducing word.

Ex. The man [*that* or *whom*] we saw here is gone.
The horse [*that* or *which*] he rode on is lame.

192. That as a subject is sometimes omitted in poetry.

Ex. 'Tis distance [*that*] lends enchantment to the view.

193. Other Parts of Speech Used as Relative Pronouns. — The adverbs *when*, *where*, *whence*, *why*, *whither*, *how*, are used in a relative sense, almost as if they were cases of *who* and *what*, or equivalent to *what* and *which* used with prepositions.

Ex. You see the place *where* [= *in which*] he stands.
You see *where* [= *in what place*] he stands.

194. The compounds of *where* with prepositions, *wherewith*, *whereby*, *wherein*, etc., are used in the same relative sense.

Ex. He had no roof *wherewith* [= *with which*] to shelter them.
I do not know *wherein* [= *in what*] he failed.

195. As Used as a Relative Pronoun. — The conjunction *as* is often used as a relative pronoun, when it follows *such*.

Ex. I love such *as* [= *those who*] love me.

196. But Used as a Relative Pronoun. — *But* is sometimes used after a negative verb, as a kind of negative relative, equivalent to *that not*.

Ex. There is not a man here *but* knows it.
That is, There is not a man here *who does not know it*.

197. Relative Pronouns Used as Adjectives. — The relative pronouns *which* and *what* with their compounds, *whichever* and *whatever*, are often used in the sense of adjectives. They are then called RELATIVE ADJECTIVES [236].

Ex. I know *which* book she will choose. [*that book which.*]
I see *what* reward you will have. [*that reward which.*]
Whichever road you take will bring you home. [*any road which.*]

EXERCISE 53.

USE OF PRONOUNS IN SENTENCES.

Write sentences containing the following words.

1. The relative pronoun *that*. 2. The demonstrative pronoun *that*. 3. The demonstrative adjective *that*. 4. The relative pronoun *who*. 5. The interrogative pronoun *who*. 6. The relative pronoun *what*. 7. The interrogative pronoun *what*. 8. The relative adjective *what*. 9. The interrogative adjective *what*. 10. The interrogative pronoun *which*. 11. The interrogative adjective *which*. 12. The relative pronoun *which*. 13. The relative adjective *which*. 14. The interrogative adjective *whose*. 15. The relative adjective *whichever*. 16. The interrogative pronoun *whether*. 17. The indefinite relative *whoever*. 18. *As* used as a relative. 19. *But* used as a relative. 20. *Where* used as a relative.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

198. Under the name of INDEFINITE PRONOUNS are included certain classes of words which, by derivation or by use, have a likeness to pronouns. Most of them are used as adjectives also [239]. In fact, they seem to be half-way between real pronouns on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other. Among the Indefinite Pronouns are the following classes:—

(a) THE DISTRIBUTIVES, *each*, *either*, and *neither*.

These relate to objects taken separately, and are always singular.

(b) THE WORDS OF NUMBER AND QUANTITY, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *aught*, and *naught*.

Also the compounds of *some*, *any*, *every*, and *no*, with *one*, *thing*, and *body*; as *something*, *any one*, *nobody*.

(c) THE COMPARATIVES, *such* and *other*.

(d) THE RECIPROCALS, or the pronoun-phrases having a mutual sense. These are *each other* and *one another*.

199. Inflection. — The only indefinite pronouns which have plural forms are *one* and *other*. Only a few of them have a form for the possessive case. These are *one*, *other*, *somebody*, *any one*, *nobody*, etc.

EXERCISE 54.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

Draw one line under each indefinite pronoun and tell to what class it belongs. Draw two lines under each indefinite adjective.

1. Fear nothing, but hope all things.
2. All that breathe will share thy destiny.
3. Few shall part where many meet.
4. Few and short were the prayers we said.
5. Any attempt to injure either will surely come to naught.
6. Such is the tale the settlers tell.
7. Both were young, and one was fair.
8. Select such as you prefer.
9. None but the brave deserves the fair.
10. Sin has many tools, but a lie is the handle which fits them all.

• DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING PRONOUNS.

200. In parsing a pronoun we should give —

1. The *class* to which it belongs.
2. The *antecedent*, if it is a simple relative; if it is compound, the *equivalent antecedent and simple relative*.

Ex. *What = that which.*

3. The *gender*, if it is a personal pronoun of the third person singular.
4. The *person*, if it is a personal or a relative pronoun.
5. The *number*.
6. The *declension*, if it is inflected.
7. The *case*.
8. The *construction*.

In general, the constructions of the pronoun are the same as these of the noun.

EXAMPLES.

These | are the men }
some of whom } | visited us yesterday.

1. *These* is a demonstrative pronoun; plural number; Sing. *this*, Pl. *these*; nominative case; the subject-nominative of the verb *are*.
2. *Some* is an indefinite pronoun of number or quantity; not inflected, but used here as a plural, meaning more than one man; nominative case; subject-nominative of the verb *visited*.
3. *Whom* is a relative pronoun; its antecedent is *men*; third person and plural number, because its antecedent is; Nom. *who*, Poss. *whose*, Obj. *whom*; objective case; object of the preposition *of*. *Whom* is also conjunctive, joining its antecedent *men* and the adjective clause, *some of whom visited us yesterday*.
4. *Us* is a personal pronoun; first person; plural number; Nom. *I*, Poss. *my* or *mine*, etc.; objective case; direct object of the verb *visited*.

EXERCISE FOR PARSING.

1. Who are you, who talk of peace?
2. Who steals my purse steals trash.
3. Who is it leans from the belfry, with face upturned to the sky?
4. Man cannot cover what God would reveal.
5. The fur which warms a monarch warmed a bear.
6. Whom the gods love die young.
7. In this, 'tis God directs; in that, 'tis man.
8. Hold fast to those you can trust.
9. It was told the king of Egypt that the people fled.
10. He that can have patience can have what he will.
11. What is my present misfortune may be forever yours.
12. I that speak unto thee am he.
13. I tell thee thou'rt defied!
14. Ye are living poems, and all the rest are dead.
15. Men must reap the things they sow.
16. Happy is that people whose annals are brief.
17. Nature never did betray the heart that loved her.
18. That tongue of hers will make trouble.

19. I used some for myself and some for a friend of mine.
20. Power laid his rod of rule aside,
And Ceremony doff'd her pride.
21. It matters very little what immediate spot may have been
the birthplace of such a man as Washington.
22. There is no wind but soweth seeds
Of a more true and open life.
23. You moon, have you done something wrong in heaven,
That God has hidden your face ?
24. Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed.
25. And thou too, whosoe'er thou art,
That readest this brief psalm,
As one by one thy hopes depart,
Be resolute and calm.
26. By the light of these torches, parties of fugitives encoun-
tered one another, some hurrying towards the sea, others flying
from the sea back to the land.
27. Among the beautiful pictures
That hang on Memory's wall,
Is one of a dim old forest,
That seemeth best of all.
28. Show me the happy man whose life exhibits these qualities,
and him we will salute as gentleman, whatever his rank may be.
29. All these angels, who were waiting, turned their beaming
eyes upon the people who were carried up into the star; and some
came out from the long rows in which they stood, and fell upon
the people's necks, and kissed them tenderly, and went away with
them down avenues of light, and were so happy in their company
that, lying in his bed, he wept for joy.
30. I see in thy gentle eyes a tear ;
They turn to me in sorrowful thought ;
Thou thinkest of friends, the good and dear,
Who were for a time, and now are not,
Like these fair children of cloud and frost,
That glisten a moment and then are lost, —
Flake after flake, —
All lost in the dark and silent lake.
31. Talent is that which is in a man's power; genius is that in
whose power a man is.

CHAPTER V.

ADJECTIVES.

201. An Adjective is a word used to qualify a noun or pronoun. [143 b.] It is a *descriptive* word, pointing out some quality or condition or action or relation, or the like, as belonging to the subject named by the noun.

Ex. *good man; whipped dog; jumping frog; this book; yonder tree; that one.*

The adjective merely *mentions* the quality, condition, etc., and does not *assert* that it belongs to the object. That can be done only by means of a verb; as, for example, *The man is good; The dog was whipped.*

202. Classes of Adjectives.—The largest class of adjectives includes all those which express some *quality*. They are called DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES or ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

Ex. *black, sweet, awful, sincere.*

Besides the adjectives of quality, there are three special classes,—the ARTICLES, the NUMERALS, and the PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

INFLECTION.

203. Inflection of Adjectives.—Adjectives do not have in English, as they have in many other languages, any inflection, or change of form, to express differences of number or case or gender.

The only exceptions are the pronominal adjectives *this* and *that*, which are changed to *these* and *those* before a plural noun.

Ex. *this man; these men; that book; those books.*

204. Comparison of Adjectives. — Many adjectives, however, have a change of form to mark the *degree* of the quality which they express. This change of form is called COMPARISON, because it implies a *comparing* of the object described by the adjective with other objects that have the same quality.

For example, '*a long string*' implies simply that the string has the quality of *length*. '*A longer string*' implies that this particular string is compared with another and found to be of greater length. '*The longest string*' implies that this particular one, among any number compared, exceeds all the rest in length.

205. Degrees of Comparison. — The adjective *long* is said to be of the POSITIVE DEGREE; *longer*, of the COMPARATIVE DEGREE; and *longest*, of the SUPERLATIVE DEGREE. The comparative and superlative degrees are formed from the simple adjective, or the positive degree, by adding **er** or **r** for the comparative, and **est** or **st** for the superlative.

The comparative degree strictly implies a comparison of *two* objects; the superlative, *of more than two*.

Ex. John is the *younger* of the two sons, and the *youngest* of all the children.

EXERCISE 55.

COMPARISON.

Which degree of the adjectives is used?

Tallest; green; harder; surest; quaintest; serene; slower; ablest; untidy; graphic; oldest; interesting; gloomier; frailest; purer; majestic; wealthiest; cheery; venerable; newest.

EXERCISE 56.

COMPARISON.

Compare the adjectives. Ex. Positive, *brave*; Comparative, *braver*; Superlative, *bravest*.

Black; neat; clear; fierce; ready; short; odd; pretty; fine; droll; great; idle; cross; shy; glossy; red; deep; bright; intense; pleasant.

206. Adjectives which may be Compared.—What adjectives may be compared depends partly upon their *meaning*, since some qualities or conditions do not admit of a difference in degree.

Ex. *equal, dead, yearly, French.*

But it depends much more upon their *form*. Most adjectives of one syllable can be compared; but comparatively few of two syllables, and almost none of three syllables.

207. Adjectives not Compared.—Adjectives which are not compared have their variations of degree expressed by the adverbs *more* and *most*, thus making compound forms or adjective phrases, which have the same meaning as the comparative and superlative degrees.

Ex. *famous, more famous, most famous.*
distant, more distant, most distant.

208. Some adjectives which admit of comparison often form phrases of this kind instead.

Ex. able { abler { ablest
 { more able { most able

common { commoner { commonest
 { more common { most common

209. When an object is said to have more of one quality than of another, the adjective phrase with *more* is always used.

Ex. The news is *more true* than pleasant [not *truer* than pleasant].

210. The adverbs *less* and *least* combine with adjectives to make phrases which imply degrees of quality below the positive.

Ex. *least formal, less formal, formal, more formal, most formal.*

EXERCISE 57.

COMPARISON.

Which of these adjectives may be compared?

Which are used with 'more' and 'most'?

Wrong; heart-rending; true; immortal; supreme; dreary; sincere; polite; square; false; daily; entire; sublime; beautiful; annual; empty; noble; accurate; round; fashionable; complete; principal; hollow; full; furious; level; fortunate; straight; correct; early.

211. Irregular Comparison. — A few adjectives have irregular comparisons, as follows: —

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good	better	best
bad }	worse	worst
ill }		
little	less	least
many }	more	most
much }		
old	{ older elder	{ oldest eldest
late	{ later latter	{ latest last
near	nearer	{ nearest next

212. Some comparatives and superlatives have no adjective, but an adverb instead, for their positive degree.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
forth [also <i>far</i>]	{ further farther	{ furthest furthermost farthest
fore [sometimes an adjective.]	former	{ foremost first
in	inner	{ innost innermost
out	{ outer utter	{ outmost outermost utinost
up	upper	{ upmost [rare] uppermost

213. Some words take the ending *most* to form a kind of superlative, though they do not distinguish any positive or comparative degrees.

Ex. *midmost, undermost, nethermost, northernmost, southernmost, endmost, topmost.*

214. Proper Adjectives. — The descriptive adjectives which are derived from proper nouns are sometimes called PROPER ADJECTIVES. Each proper adjective should begin with a capital letter.

Ex. *American, from America; Mosaic, from Moses.*

EXERCISE 58.

PROPER ADJECTIVES.

Write sentences containing proper adjectives derived from the following nouns:—

Rome; Homer; Australia; Venice; Mexico; Chili; Spain; Shakespeare; Amazon; Turkey; Italy; Christ; Japan; Portugal; Sweden.



ARTICLES.

215. The Articles. — The ARTICLES *an* or *a* and *the* are adjective words, since they are always used along with nouns, to limit or qualify them.

Ex. *a* crown; *an* olive; *the* laurel.

216. The Indefinite Article. — *An* or *a* is the weakened form of the numeral *one*. It is called the INDEFINITE ARTICLE, and is used only with a singular noun. *An* is used before a vowel sound; *a*, before a consonant.

The article *an* is by many persons used before a word beginning with a pronounced *h*, and accented on the second syllable.

Ex. *an* hotel; *an* hypothesis; *an* historical novel.

Before the *sound* of *y* or *w*, however written, the article *a* is used.

Ex. Such *a* one; *a* union; *a* European — just as we say, *a* wonder; *a* youth.

217. In phrases like '*two miles an hour*,' '*ten cents a yard*,' the *a* or *an* is not exactly an article, but the weakened form of *one* in the sense of *each one, every*.

218. In such phrases as, '*a-hunting*,' '*a-going*,' the *a* has nothing to do with either the article or the numeral, but is a sort of preposition.

219. The Definite Article. — The DEFINITE ARTICLE *the* is the weakened form of *that*.

220. The *the* which is used before a comparative (adjective or adverb) in such phrases as '*the more, the merrier*,' is not an article at all, but an adverb.

NUMERALS.

221. The Numeral Adjectives. — The NUMERALS are the adjectives which express *number*. The principal ones are those which are used in counting, or in answering the question ‘how many?’ They are called the CARDINAL NUMERALS, or simply the CARDINALS.

Ex. *two; thirteen; forty; hundred; million; etc.*

222. Cardinals used as Nouns. — The cardinals are used not only as adjectives, but also substantively, either standing for a noun or connected with a following noun by the preposition *of*.

Ex. They saw the *three* [men] once more.
Three of the men were seen again.

223. When used as nouns, these numerals all form plurals.

Ex. They came in by *twos* and *threes*.
 They sat down by *fifties* and *hundreds*.

224. The higher numbers, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, etc., usually keep the singular form in simple numbers, even after *two*, *three*, etc.; and they always keep the singular form in compound numbers made up of different denominations.

Ex. This boy can count up to *two hundred*.
 I have *two hundreds* in my minuend.
 The sum is *six million five thousand four hundred* and twenty.

225. *Dozen* is often used instead of *twelve*, *score* instead of *twenty*, and the old form *twain* is still sometimes used for *two*.

226. Numerals Derived from the Cardinals. — Three classes of numerals are derived from the cardinal

numbers. They are the ORDINALS, the FRACTIONALS, and the MULTIPLICATIVES.

227. The Ordinals.—The ORDINALS show the *order* of anything in a series. They are commonly formed from the cardinals by the use of the suffix **th**.

Ex. *fourth; tenth; seventieth; eighty-ninth; thousandth.*

First, second, third, from one, two, three, are exceptions to this rule of formation.

228. The Fractionals.—These same ordinals, except *first* and *second*, are used to denote one of a certain number of equal parts into which anything is supposed to be divided. When used in this sense, they are called FRACTIONALS.

Ex. Here is *a third part*, or *a third*, of an apple.

How many cents make *six hundredths* of a dollar?

The fractional corresponding to *two* is *half*, instead of *second*; and *quarter* is frequently used instead of *fourth*.

229. The Multiplicatives.—In order to show how many times anything is taken, or by what it is multiplied, the cardinal numeral is compounded with the word *fold*. These compounds are called MULTIPLICATIVES.

Ex. There is *a three-fold necessity* for caution.

The seed increased *a hundred-fold*.

Simple, double, triple, quadruple, and a few others in *ple*, less often used, may be included under the Multiplicatives.

The numeral adverbs *once, twice, thrice*, have a similar multiplicative sense.

EXERCISE 59.

NUMERALS.

Explain the use of each of the numerals.

1. The screw serves a double purpose.
2. The storm lasted three days.
3. May is the fifth month of the year.
4. The song is written in quadruple time.
5. But half of our heavy task was done.
6. He has lived beyond the three-score-and-ten allotted to man.
7. February has twenty-nine days every fourth year.
8. Away they all went, twenty couple at once.
9. Rich in the possession of two strong hands, I do not envy him his millions.
10. Into the valley of Death rode the six hundred.
11. There stood the dauntless three.
12. I will not destroy the city for ten's sake.
13. Add two to the column of tens.
14. He bought a dozen boxes of matches.
15. Great progress has been made during the last quarter-century.
16. The wind returned with ten-fold velocity.
17. Xerxes numbered his army by ten-thousands.
18. Tens of thousands of pins must be lost every day.
19. The necessity for haste seemed to cause a hundred-fold delay.
20. Seven times one are seven.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

230. Pronominal Adjectives are pronouns which are used with the value of adjectives. It has already been shown, in the chapter on Pronouns, that the same word may be used either *adjectively*, qualifying a noun, or *substantively*, as a pronoun, standing for a noun.

Ex. *Each season has its own peculiar charm.* [Adj.]

Summer and winter — each has its charm. [Pro.]

231. Classes of Pronominal Adjectives.— Pronominal adjectives are divided into classes corresponding to those of the pronouns. They are the POSSESSIVES, the DEMONSTRATIVES, the INTERROGATIVES, the RELATIVES, and the INDEFINITE Pronominal Adjectives.

232. The Possessives. — The POSSESSIVES are the same as the possessive cases of the personal pronouns.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
<i>1st Person.</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>2d Person.</i>	thy, thine	your, yours
<i>3d Person.</i>	{ <i>m.</i> his { <i>f.</i> her, hers { <i>n.</i> its }	their, theirs

To these personal pronouns may be added *whose*, the possessive case of *who*, both as relative and as interrogative.

233. Use of the Second Forms. — The second forms — *mine, ours, thine*, etc. — are used when no qualified noun follows the possessive.

Ex. Here are my book and *yours*; bring me *hers* and *theirs*.
This man is an old friend of *ours*. [See 110 and 152.]

In old-style English, *mine* and *thine* are often found used for *my* and *thy*, especially before a vowel.

Ex. He will grant *thine* every wish.

234. The Demonstratives. — The DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES are *this, these; that, those; yon, yonder*. The first two pairs are the same as the demonstrative pronouns, and are used with the same differences of meaning when adjectives as when pronouns. [167 c.] *Yon* or *yonder* points to an object which is remote, but generally in sight.

Ex. What is the name of *yonder* mountain?

235. The Interrogatives. — The interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* are often used as adjectives, and are then called INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES. (175)

Both of them refer to either persons or things, the only difference between them being that *which* is selective.

- Ex.** *What* book have you? [What is its title?]
Which book have you? [Implies that a selection has been made from several books.]

236. The Relatives. — *Which* and *what* are also the only RELATIVE ADJECTIVES. Both are usually compound relatives, or imply the antecedent along with the relative; and *which* differs from *what* in being selective.

[197]

- Ex.** I know *what* book [that is, *the book, in general, which*] you mean.
I know *which* book [that is, *the book, in particular, of a certain known set, which*] you mean.

237. *Which* is sometimes used adjectively as a *simple* relative, the antecedent not being included within itself.

- Ex.** He was gone a year, during *which* time he travelled all over Europe.

238. The compound forms *whichever* and *whatever* may also be used as relative adjectives.

- Ex.** I see fresh proofs, *whichever* way I look.
Whatever work he undertook prospered.

239. The Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives. — Most of the indefinite pronouns, with a few other similar words, are used also as INDEFINITE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES. [198] The most important classes of these adjectives are the following:—

- (a) **THE DISTRIBUTIVES:** *each, every, either, neither.*
Of these, *every* is always an adjective.
- (b) **THE QUANTITATIVES:** *some, any, many, few, all, both, no.* These are often called INDEFINITE NUMERALS.

The phrases '*a great many*,' '*a few*,' '*a little*,' are used with a following noun as if they were adjectives; but the quantitative is here really a noun.

Ex. *A great many men* (that is, A great many [of] men).

Many, which is commonly used only with plural nouns, may qualify a singular noun preceded by *a* or *an*.

Ex. *Full many a gem* of purest ray serene.

(c) **THE COMPARATIVES:** *such* and *other*. *Such* implies a resemblance, and *other* a difference. *Other*, like comparative adjectives in general, is followed by *than*.

Ex. *Other worlds than ours.*

EXERCISE 60.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Classify the following adjectives.

Yonder; neither; fourth; five-tenths; awful; that; Swiss; whatever; each; sixty-fold; thine; magnificent; whose; every; such; little; the; Brazilian; thousand; which; those; many; double; other; theirs; Chinese; what; few; literary; Jeffersonian.

EXERCISE 61.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Point out the adjectives, and mention to what class each belongs.

1. Much harm may be done by a few thoughtless words.
2. What English bird sings in the evening?
3. I cannot imagine what bird you mean.
4. Which states were admitted during Grant's administration?
5. Both doctors said the same thing.
6. He believes whatever idle rumors he may hear.
7. Many a weary mile those pilgrims trod.
8. The breaking waves dashed high on a stern and rock-bound coast.

9. He is never alone whose hourly companions are noble thoughts.
10. The largest lake is three miles long and half a mile wide.
11. Every man would live long, but no man would be old.
12. Whose dying words were, "Don't give up the ship"?
13. We saw five tall soldiers in gay red uniforms.
14. The first words in the third column are proper nouns.
15. Broad fields of ripening grain met our view.
16. Such men deserve to be fortunate and happy.
17. Bright-colored birds flit among the lofty branches of these tropical forests.
18. These tall shrubs bear many large white flowers.
19. For thirty-four hours, nineteen batteries rained shot and shell against the fort.
20. Very few people are good economists of their fortune.

FORM OF ADJECTIVES.

240. Classification. — Adjectives, like nouns, may be divided, according to their form, into SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

241. Simple Adjectives. — SIMPLE ADJECTIVES are those which cannot be traced back to still simpler words in our own language.

Ex. *red; good; round; sincere.*

242. Derivative Adjectives. — DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES are made from other words in our language, by additions or other changes of form. The following are some of the most important classes:—

(a) ADJECTIVES DERIVED FROM NOUNS by the addition of suffixes:—

ly, fatherly, homely, daily;
ful, truthful, hateful, useful;
ous, odorous, mischievous, murderous;

al,	brutal, fatal, national ;
io,	despotic, telegraphic ;
able,	marriageable, peaceable ;
y,	filthy, hearty, misty ;
ish,	childish, foolish, Turkish ;
some,	troublesome, toilsome ;
less,	fearless, homeless, endless ;
en,	wooden, golden, silken ;
ed,	horned, jacketed, barefooted.

(b) ADJECTIVES DERIVED FROM OTHER ADJECTIVES by the aid of *suffixes* denoting difference of degree :—

er,	smaller, longer, prettier ;
est,	tallest, strongest, ugliest ;
ish,	bluish, roundish, youngish ;
ly,	weakly, cleanly, deadly ;
some,	wholesome, gladsome, wearisome.

(c) ADJECTIVES DERIVED FROM OTHER ADJECTIVES by the aid of *prefixes* :—

un,	untrue, unfaithful, unending ;
in,	inactive, incapable, inconstant ;

with others, less numerous and regular ; such as,

international ; *extraordinary* ; *antenuptial* ; *postdiluvial* ; *preternatural* ; *subacid* ; *superabundant* ; *co-eternal* ; *malcontent*.

(d) ADJECTIVES DERIVED FROM VERBS :—

The present participle in ing ,	loving, giving, shining ;
The past participle in ed ,	loved, varied, petted ;
The past participle in en ,	given, bitten, frozen ;
The past participle without a suffix,	sung, wound, fought ;
The verbal adjective in able ,	lovable, disputable, changeable.

243. Compound Adjectives. — COMPOUND ADJECTIVES are formed by putting together two English words. The most important classes are as follows:—

- (a) A COMPOUND OF TWO ADJECTIVES, the first having commonly the force of an adverb qualifying the other.

Ex. *new-born* (*newly born*) ; *full-fed* ; *hard-gotten*.

- (b) A COMPOUND OF AN ADJECTIVE WITH A PRECEDING NOUN.

Ex. *life-like* ; *home-sick* ; *milk-white*.

- (c) A COMPOUND OF AN ADJECTIVE WITH A PRECEDING ADVERB.

Ex. *ever-lasting* ; *over-bold* ; *fore-ordained*.

- (d) A COMPOUND OF A NOUN WITH A PRECEDING ADJECTIVE that qualifies it, and with *ed* added as an adjective suffix.

Ex. *four-footed* ; *red-haired* ; *old-fashioned*.

EXERCISE 62.

FORM OF ADJECTIVES.

Classify the following adjectives according to their form.

Explain the formation of the derivative and compound adjectives.

Coal-black; ornamental; oaken; sunburnt; slow; yeasty; handsome; long-headed; unfruitful; barefooted; rock-bound; honest; three-pronged; grieved; bookish; low-toned; pathless; coarse; tuneful; telephonic; glowing; good-natured; greenish; half-finished; seven-hilled; beautiful; knee-high; never-dying; intercollegiate; water-tight; laughing; brotherly; untruthful; heart-rending; wounded; changeable.

USES OF THE ADJECTIVE.

244. The adjective has but one general office; namely, to qualify a noun ; but it does this in three different ways. We have, therefore, three principal constructions or uses of the adjective, as follows : —

245. I. Attributive. — When an adjective is simply added to a noun to describe it, without being part of an assertion made about it, it is called an ATTRIBUTE or an ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE. If we say, ‘This man is *old*,’ we *assert* something in regard to his age ; but if we say, ‘This *old* man,’ we merely *mention* his age as an attribute ; that is, a part of the description of the man.

An attributive adjective is rarely used before a pronoun ; as, for example, ‘*poor little me*.’ It may qualify a noun in any construction whatever, and it is *commonly* put before the noun.

Ex. My dear friend’s *generous* heart led him to give the *tired* traveller a *delightful* rest, *last week*, in the *best* room of his *elegant* house.

246. II. Appositive. — When an adjective is joined to a noun or a pronoun in a looser and more indirect way, as if it were the predicate of an abbreviated descriptive clause, it is called an APPPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE. Its use is much like that of the appositive noun ; and it is often, but not always, placed after the noun which it qualifies.

Ex. All poetry, *ancient* and *modern*, abounds in sentiment.
That is, All poetry, *whether it be ancient or modern*.

Tired and *hungry*, he hastened home.
That is, *Since he was tired and hungry*.

247. III. Predicative. — When an adjective qualifies the subject of a verb and at the same time completes the assertion made by the verb, it is called a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE [46], and the construction is said to be PREDICATIVE.

248. Verbs of Incomplete Predication. — The verbs which commonly take predicate nouns and adjectives are sometimes called VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION. The following are the principal classes of such verbs:—

(a) The verb *be*, in its various forms.

Ex. I *am* ready. He *is* angry. They *will be* sorry.

(b) *Become*, with other verbs used in nearly the same sense, as *grow*, *get*, *turn*, etc.

Ex. He *became* confused. Her face *grew* red. This ink *turns* black.

(c) *Remain*, *continue*, *stay*, etc.

Ex. The captive *remained* silent. He *continues* sulky.

(d) *Seem*, *appear*, *look*, etc.

Ex. The clouds *look* dark. She *seems* tired.

(e) *Sound*, *smell*, *feel*, etc.

Ex. I *feel* cold. The rose *smells* sweet.

(f) Verbs of condition and motion, such as *stand*, *sit*, *go*, *move*.

Ex. The door *stands* open. He *sat* mute.

249. Special Classes of Predicate Adjectives. — The predicate adjective may have other uses besides that of qualifying the subject of the verb. We have, therefore, certain special classes of predicate adjectives, which are known as the ADVERBIAL PREDICATE and the OBJECTIVE or FACTITIOUS PREDICATE. [132]

250. Adverbial Predicate. — In some sentences, and especially with the verbs of condition and motion, the predicate adjective seems to modify both the subject and the verb. For example, in the sentence, ‘The sun shines *bright*,’ we mean not merely that the *sun* is bright, but also that the *shining* is bright. Such an adjective may be called an **ADVERBIAL PREDICATE ADJECTIVE**, because it seems to have something of the force of an adverb.

Other examples are, He stands *firm*; The milk has turned *sour*; The tone rings *clear* and *full*.

251. Objective or Factitive Predicate. — An adjective which is joined to the verb in such a way as to qualify the direct object of the verb is called an **OBJECTIVE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE**.

Ex. He made the stick *straight*.

The adjective *straight* qualifies the object *stick*, by becoming a kind of addition to the verb *made*, and thus describing the action exerted on the stick. He *made straight* [that is, he straightened] the stick.

The objective predicate occurs most often with a verb that is used in a *factitive* sense; that is, in the sense of making or causing.

Ex. She wrings the clothes *dry* = She *makes* the clothes *dry* by *wringing*.

I sang my throat *hoarse* = I *made* my throat *hoarse* by *singing*.

EXERCISE 63.

ATTRIBUTIVE AND APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVES.

Draw one line under the attributive adjectives, and two lines under the appositives.

1. Young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling of the house.
2. She wedded a man unlearned and poor.
3. The melan-

choly days are come. 4. The white and fleecy waves looked soft as carded wool. 5. The Spartans, equally cautious, waited for a favorable omen. 6. And there lay the rider, distorted and pale. 7. This is the forest primeval. 8. And there, still and silent as the dead, clustered the whole English army. 9. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels. 10. The gentle rain refreshed the thirsty flowers.' 11. On the table before them was lying a Bible, ponderous, bound in leather, brass-studded, printed in Holland. 12. We, poor in friends, sought their love. 13. After a three days' march he came to an Indian encampment. 14. It was the calm and silent night. 15. The rock resembles a great, hoary, massive castle, buttressed and turreted, like the grim strong-hold of some ancient German baron.

EXERCISE 64.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVES.

Explain each construction.

1. Grief made her insane. 2. They had been beautiful in youth.
3. They stretched the rope tight. 4. The apples look ripe, but they do not feel mellow. 5. Do you hear the robins singing?
6. That is best which lieth nearest. 7. The messenger came running and panting. 8. The lightning struck him dead. 9. He feels weary, but he carries his head high. 10. The precipice seems steep and terrible. 11. Try to keep the water hot. 12. The gate stands open, but the garden is deserted. 13. We arrived here safe. 14. All went merry as a marriage bell. 15. All God's angels come to us disguised. 16. The startled river turns leaden and harsh. 17. The light burns dim. 18. The temptation was irresistible. 19. Noisiest fountains run soonest dry. 20. The fisherman stood aghast.

252. Other Parts of Speech Used as Adjectives.—

(a) NOUNS.—Nouns, especially the names of material, are often used in the sense of adjectives.

Ex. A gold watch; a steel pen; a stone wall; country customs.

- (b) ADVERBS.—*Occasionally* an adverb is used as an adjective.

Ex. My *sometime* friend; the *then* governor; the *down* train.

- (c) VERBS.—As has already been shown, the participles are used as verbal adjectives.

Ex. A *whistling* wind; a *beaten* path; a *long-delayed* letter.

- (d) PREPOSITIONS.—Prepositions are sometimes, but rarely, used as adjectives.

Ex. In *after* ages; the *above* example.

253. Adjectives Used as Other Parts of Speech.—

- (a) ADVERBS.—Sometimes, and especially in poetry, the adjective is used in the sense of the adverb.

Ex. The bell clanged *loud* and *clear*.

- (b) NOUNS.—Adjectives are often used substantively.

Ex. The land of the *free* and the home of the *brave*.

- 254.** Without being used as a noun, an adjective very often stands alone, in such a way that we must supply a noun after it in order to make the meaning complete. The adjective is then said to qualify *a noun understood*.

Ex. He owns a white horse, and I a black [horse].

She is a good [girl], but not a beautiful girl.

EXERCISE 65.

Point out adjectives used as other parts of speech; also other parts of speech used as adjectives.

1. The wonderful cataract is spanned by a rainbow arch.
2. To the convent portals came all the blind and halt and lame.
3. They gave no thought to the after effects of such an action.
4. Yonder heavy clouds foretell a thunder storm.

5. He sighed for a home on the rolling deep.
6. Forty sails shone in the morning sunlight.
7. The farmer boy leaned against the rail-fence and broke into a horse laugh.
8. Sea birds by hundreds and thousands hovered around the cliffs.
9. The box contained a gross of buttons, a few needles, and half-a-dozen spools of thread.
10. Let the million-dollared ride!
11. The sunset glow is fading in the west.
12. History is a record of the past; prophecy, a vision of the future.
13. The bells make iron music through the land.
14. Love and tears for the Blue;
Tears and love for the Gray.
15. Toll ye the church-bell sad and slow.
16. The living should live though the dead be dead.
17. He fed the hungry and clothed the poor.
18. The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.
19. The wisest is a fool; the fool Heaven-helped is wise.
20. The whispering wind stirred weeping willow and moaning pine.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING ADJECTIVES.

- 255.** In parsing an adjective, we should tell—
- I. The *class*—whether an adjective of quality, an article, a numeral, or a pronominal adjective.
 - II. The *sub-class*. For example, if it is a pronominal adjective, we should tell whether it is possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, or indefinite.
 - III. The *degree*, { if the adjective can be compared.
 - IV. The *comparison*, { if the adjective can be compared.
 - V. The *construction*—attributive, appositive, or predicative—with its relation to other words in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.

If we climb *the steep* path up *these* hills, we shall pass *one* or *two* *Buddhist* temples, and come upon *many* wild-flowers, *bright* and *fragrant*, *shaded* by oaks which seem *prodigious* in size.

1. *The* is an article; definite; used attributively, to modify the noun *path*.
2. *Steep* is an adjective of quality; of the positive degree; compared, *steep*, *steeper*, *steepest*; attributive; describes *path*.
3. *These* is a pronominal adjective; demonstrative; plural in form; used attributively, to modify the noun *hills*.
4. *One* and *two* are numeral adjectives; cardinals; used attributively, to modify the noun *temples*.
5. *Buddhist* is an adjective of quality; proper, being derived from the proper noun *Buddha*; attributive; describes *temples*.
6. *Many* is a pronominal adjective; indefinite; quantitative; used attributively, to modify the compound noun *wild-flowers*.
7. *Bright* is an adjective of quality; of the positive degree; compared, *bright*, *brighter*, *brightest*; used appositively after the noun *wild-flowers*, of which it is an attributive.
8. *Fragrant* is an adjective of quality; not compared, the degrees being expressed by the use of the adverbs *more* and *most*; in the same construction as *bright*.
9. *Shaded* is an adjective of quality, being the past participle of the verb *shade*; not compared, except by *more* and *most*; used appositively; qualifies *wild-flowers*.
10. *Prodigious* is an adjective of quality; not compared, except by *more* and *most*; used predicatively, after the verb *seem*; qualifies the noun *oaks*.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. Our sweetest songs are those that tell of saddest thought.
2. Great is truth, and mighty above all things.
3. Nothing can be great which is not right.
4. Every third sentence is an exclamation of delighted surprise.
5. They knew him to be a warm-hearted, free-handed, high-minded man.

6. Unto the pure all things are pure.
7. My father gave me honor, yours gave land.
8. With lower, second, and third stories shalt thou make it.
9. He is a just, but not a generous man.
10. The potatoes were boiled soft.
11. We are all at sixes and sevens.
12. This boast of thine is vain and empty.
13. Whatever things were gain to him, those he counted loss.
14. Every seventh year was held sacred by the Jewish people.
15. The less you have to do with firearms, the better.
16. He is more polite than sincere.
17. What heroes fell at Marathon!
18. Behold yon river winding to the sea.
19. The loveliest of the three was asleep, and smiling in her dreams.
20. A great deal of talent is lost to the world for the want of a little courage.
21. He planed the board smooth.
22. The eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill.
* * * * *

And the tents were all silent, the banners alone,
The lances unlifted, the trumpets unblown.

23. For mine own part,
I shall be glad to learn of noble men.
24. The bravest are the tenderest,
The loving are the daring.
25. He was a ready orator, an elegant poet, a skilful gardener,
an excellent cook, and a most contemptible sovereign.
26. Build on, and make thy castles high and fair,
Rising and reaching upward to the skies.
27. Columbus had thought about this plan for many years,
during which time he had vainly sought help from royal courts.
28. Slow and sure comes up the golden year.
29. In by-gone days, no well-to-do farmer thought that he could get in his hay without a good-sized jug of old-fashioned whiskey to refresh himself and his hired men.
30. We know what master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel.

31. Soon o'er the yellow fields, in silent and mournful procession,
Came from the neighboring hamlets and farms the Acadian
women,
Driving in ponderous wains their household goods to the
seashore.
32. This antique, yellow, Moorish-looking stronghold, which
modern gunnery would destroy in ten minutes or less, is picturesque
to the last degree, with its crumbling, honey-combed battlements
and queer little flanking towers.
33. And the curious country people,
Rich and poor, and young and old,
Came in haste to see this wondrous
Winged steed, with mane of gold.
34. Pious, just, humane, temperate, and sincere; uniform, dignified, and commanding — his [Washington's] example was as edifying to all around him as were the effects of that example lasting.
35. To the Druids, the mistletoe, a parasitic, evergreen plant
growing on certain trees, seemed especially sacred.
36. Unheard, because our ears are dull,
Unseen, because our eyes are dim,
He walks our earth, the Wonderful,
And all good deeds are done to Him.
37. Half-way down a by-street of one of our New England
towns stands a rusty wooden house, with seven acutely-peaked
gables facing towards various points of the compass, and a huge
clustered chimney in the midst.
38. The guillotine hushed the eloquent, struck down the powerful, and abolished the beautiful and the good.
39. The ocean eagle soared
From his nest by the white wave's foam.
40. A beautiful behavior is better than a beautiful form; it
gives a higher pleasure than statues and pictures; it is the finest
of the fine arts.

CHAPTER VI.

VERBS.

256. A Verb is a word that tells or declares or asserts something.

Ex. *Speak; draw; reads; understands.*

257. Every sentence must have a verb in it, to form, either alone or with other words, the *predicate* of the sentence.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

258. Verbs may be divided, according to their use in sentences, into two classes, TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE.

259. The Object of a Verb. — Some verbs are naturally followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, showing what person or thing receives, or is the *object* of, the action expressed by the verb. This noun or pronoun is called the **OBJECT** of the verb. [47]

For example, the expressions ‘I persuade’ and ‘I cross’ seem by themselves incomplete, and we expect some word expressing the person or thing that is persuaded or crossed. This word, answering the question ‘what?’ or ‘whom?’ is the *object* of the verb which it follows.

Ex. I persuade my *friend* to sing.
I cross the *road* to meet him.

260. Transitive Verbs.—A verb which thus takes an object in order to complete its meaning is called a TRANSITIVE VERB. ‘*Transitive*’ means ‘going over.’ The word implies a *passing over* of the action from the subject to the object.

Ex. The captain *rowed* the boat.

261. Intransitive Verbs.—A verb which does not thus take an object to complete its meaning is called an INTRANSITIVE VERB.

Ex. The master *frowned*. All nature *rejoices*.

262. Transitive Verbs Used Intransitively.—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not an absolute one, but depends upon the way in which the verb is used in the sentence. Almost all transitive verbs may be *used intransitively*, no mention being made of the object which receives or endures the action.

Ex. The captain *struck* his servant. [Transitive.]

The ship *struck* on a sunken reef. [Used intransitively.]

263. Intransitive Verbs Used Transitively.—So, also, verbs that are commonly intransitive may be *used transitively*. The object of such a verb is often a noun of similar meaning; as, He *dreamed* a *dream*; She *lived* a useful *life*. Such nouns are called COGNATE OBJECTS.

264. Intransitive verbs become transitive when used in a *causative* or *factive* sense. [251]

Ex. Boys *fly* kites; that is, *cause* kites to *fly*.

He *works* his men hard; that is, *makes* them *work* hard.

EXERCISE 66.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

Point out the transitive and the intransitive verbs.

1. They led a captive in chains.
2. The path led along by the river.
3. You are a widow, I believe.
4. The child believes every word you say.
5. I believe; therefore have I spoken.
6. As he slept, he dreamed.
7. They slept the sleep of the weary.
8. She worked herself into a passion.
9. She worked faithfully.
10. He died in battle.
11. He died a dreadful death.
12. Sound the trumpets, beat the drums.
13. The trumpets sound, the drums beat.
14. Lay the apples on the grass.
15. Fragrant apples lay on the grass.
16. He walked to town.
17. He walked his horse all the way.
18. He stands his ground manfully.
19. Do not stand in my way.
20. They stand the chairs in a row against the wall.

EXERCISE 67.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE USE OF SAME VERB.

Write sentences containing the following verbs, used both transitively and intransitively:—

Weep; freezes; flew; teach; spend; rings; saw; wave; understand; answer; sings; rained; write; runs; mourned; succeeds; speaks; broke; moved; returned.

INFLECTION. SIMPLE VERBAL FORMS.

265. Conjugation.—Verbs, like nouns and pronouns, have certain changes of form, in order to express changes of meaning. This inflection is called the CONJUGATION of the verb.

266. Three Forms of Inflection.—The changes which a verb may undergo are of three kinds. The conjugation of a verb therefore includes three forms of inflection. They are: 1. THE TENSE-FORMS; 2. THE MODE-FORMS; 3. THE PERSON-AND-NUMBER-FORMS.

TENSE.

267. The Tense-Forms show a difference in the time of the act or state expressed by the verb.

Ex. I *write* this letter. [now; this morning.]

I *wrote* this letter. [three weeks ago.]

268. Tenses.—The verb has two of these tense-forms or simple TENSES. That which refers to *present time* is called the PRESENT TENSE. That which refers to *past time* is called the PTERIT TENSE. (Sometimes called simply the Past Tense.)

269. Peculiar Use of the Present Tense.—The present tense is sometimes used with reference to what is *past* or *future*, when we wish to make it vivid and distinct.

Ex. In the third century *begins* the rivalry between Rome and Carthage.

He *enters* college next year.

EXERCISE 68.**TENSE.**

Tell whether the verbs are of the present tense or the preterit.

1. The weaver sits at his loom.
2. We love our country, but they died for her.
3. Leonidas and his men stand firm while the Persians attack them.
4. The stag paused upon the brink of the precipice.
5. The summer comes and the summer goes.
6. Our cousins go abroad next year.
7. Under "the five good emperors" the Roman Empire reached its greatest prosperity; and now it begins to decline rapidly to its fall.
8. Then came the laborers home from the field, and serenely the sun sank down to his rest, and twilight prevailed.
9. The paths of glory lead but to the grave.
10. I read on the stone this singular inscription.
11. After conquering the provinces, Cæsar returns to Rome.
12. Sparks from the engine set fire to the forest.

EXERCISE 69.

TENSE.

Write the present tense of each of the following verbs:—

Sat; taught; was; rowed; spread; beat; grew; brought; thrust; heard; answered; stood; sang; came; wrote; said; flitted; made; met; gave.

Write the preterit tense of each of the following:—

Lie (to recline); lie (to tell a falsehood); set (to place); fly, flee; defy; read; burst; flow; see; run; burn; reign; cut; fill; fell; fall; bury; stir; bear.

MODE.

270. The Mode-Forms are so called because they show a difference in the *mode* or *manner* of the assertion.

- Ex.** 1. He *is* kind to his parents. [States a fact.]
- 2. *If he were* kind to them, they would not be unhappy. [Expresses a supposition not founded on fact; a *conditional* or doubtful assertion.]
- 3. *Be* kind to your parents. [Gives a command.]

271. Modes.—The verb has three MODES: the INDICATIVE, the SUBJUNCTIVE, and the IMPERATIVE.

272. The Indicative Mode.—The INDICATIVE MODE is chiefly used to make a simple, direct assertion. It is the mode most commonly used.

- Ex.** It *snows*. Gold *glitters*. The Romans *withdrew*.

273. The Subjunctive Mode.—The SUBJUNCTIVE MODE is sometimes used in making doubtful or conditional assertions, which commonly form only part of a sentence.

- Ex.** *If I be* in the wrong, I will confess it. *Though he swear* it, they will not believe him. Supposing she *were* there, what could she do?

274. The subjunctive has very nearly gone out of use in modern English. This is true especially of its preterit tense. No verb except *be* has a preterit subjunctive that differs from the indicative. In place of the subjunctive we use either the indicative or some of the verb-phrases which will be described later.

275. The Imperative Mode.—The IMPERATIVE MODE is used to express command or entreaty.

Ex. *Go* away. *See* that ship! *Be* still!

276. The imperative has but one form, which is used for both the singular and the plural. Its subject, *thou*, *you*, or *ye*, may be expressed, coming after the verb, but it is usually omitted.

Ex. *Go*, or *go thou*. *Beware*, or *beware ye*.

EXERCISE 70.

MODE.

Tell whether the mode is indicative, subjunctive, or imperative.

1. If thine enemy hunger, feed him.
2. A band of Indians galloped over the plains.
3. Speak gently to the erring.
4. If time be of all things the most precious, wasting time is the greatest prodigality.
5. He that prays harm for his neighbor begs a curse upon himself.
6. Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.
7. Stand! the ground's your own, my braves!
8. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
9. If men were wise in little things, the world would be the better for it.
10. When Lafayette visited America the second time, he asked with astonishment, "Where are the common people?"
11. Speak clearly, if you speak at all.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

277. Inflection for Person and Number.—There are certain changes in the verb which depend, not upon

the meaning of the verb itself, but upon the person and number of the noun or pronoun which is the subject of the verb. These different forms of the verb may be called PERSON-AND-NUMBER-FORMS.

278. Person. — With the personal pronouns of the three persons we *commonly* use, in the present singular, three different forms of the verb; but in the preterit the third person always has the same form as the first person.

Ex. I *row*; thou *rowest*; he *rows*. [Present.]
I *rowed*; thou *rowedst*; he *rowed*. [Preterit.]

But in the plural the verb has the same form with all the persons.

Ex. We *row*; you *row*; they *row*.

279. Number. — The forms of the verb which go with *thou* and *you* are different, except in the subjunctive mode.

Ex. Thou *writest*; you *write*.

So, also, are the present-tense forms which are used with singular and plural subjects of the third person.

Ex. He (or man) *dies*; they (or men) *die*.

But the singular and plural forms of the preterit are alike.

Ex. He *died*; they *died*.

In the first person, the same form is used for both numbers.

Ex. I *listen*; we *listen*.

280. The only exception is the irregular verb *be*, which has a form for its three plural persons different from any of those used in the singular.

Ex. I *am*; we or you or they *are*.
I *was*; we or you or they *were*.

281. Two Forms of the Third Person Singular.—When the subject of a verb in the present tense is a singular noun or pronoun of the third person, the verbal form is made by adding s or es to the root. In old-style English, a form ending in th or eth is often used.

Ex. The wind *blows*; or the wind *bloweth*.
It *does*; or it *doth*.

EXERCISE 71.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

Write the verbal forms of the present tense which are used with the subjects I, thou, he, they.

Ex. I go; thou goest; he goes or goeth; they go.
Work; begin; wait; come; build; speak; see; read; sing;
say; touch; run; deny; flee; laugh.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

282. These three forms of inflection are all that the verb has in English; but there are certain other *derivative* words, made from almost every verb in the language, which are commonly given along with the tense and mode forms, as a part of the conjugation of the verb, because they are used in making the compound tenses or verb-phrases. They are not really verbs, because they do not *assert* anything; they are only *nouns and adjectives derived from the verb*. They are called INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES.

283. The Infinitives.—THE INFINITIVES are verbal nouns. They express in noun-form the act or state which the verb asserts.

For example, ‘he gives’ expresses an assertion, declar-

ing some one to be the doer of an action. The action itself is expressed by *giving* or *to give*. Since these expressions are the *names* for the action, they are nouns, and so may be used as the subjects or the objects of a verb.

- Ex.** *Giving* is better than receiving. } Subject.
To give is better than *to receive*. }
He likes giving. } Object.
He likes to give. }

284. The Participles. — THE PARTICIPLES are verbal adjectives. They are descriptive words, used to qualify nouns, as other adjectives do. For example, the person who gives may be described as a *giving* person, and what he gives as a *given* thing.

285. Relation of Infinitives and Participles to the Verb. — It must be remembered that the infinitives and participles are *not true verbal forms*, but are simply derived from the verb, as the nouns *giver* and *gift* are. The derivative nouns and adjectives which we call infinitives and participles, however, have certain uses different from those of other nouns and adjectives, and like those of the verb.

(a) The infinitives and participles may be followed by *objects*, direct and indirect.

- Ex.** To give *him* his *freedom* was a grand act.
Giving *her* a *smile*, he passed on.

(b) They may take the same *limiting words* as the verb does.

- Ex.** Children walking *in the park* always stop to see the swans.
[Adverbial phrase telling *where*.]
To walk *in the park* is pleasant.

(c) They may be qualified by *adverbs*.

Ex. To give *early* is to give *twice*.

Giving *gladly* is better than hoarding.

Money *freely* given was *gratefully* received.

286. Meaning of Infinitive.—The word INFINITIVE means something like ‘*unlimited, indefinite*.’ We have in the infinitives the *general idea* of an act or state, but it is not *limited* to a particular person and number, as in the true inflectional forms of the verb.

287. The Root-Infinitive.—There are two infinitives. One has the same form as the root of the verb, or the imperative, or (except in the verb *be*) the first person of the present indicative. It is called the ROOT-INFINITIVE or simply THE INFINITIVE.

Ex. *Go; see; walk; love; give.*

It often has the preposition *to* put before it as its sign.

Ex. *To go; to see, etc.*

288. The Participial Infinitive.—The second infinitive is formed by adding *ing*. It is sometimes called the INFINITIVE IN *ING*, or the GERUND, but more commonly the PARTICIPIAL INFINITIVE, because it is, *in form*, exactly like one of the participles.

Ex. *Going; seeing; walking; loving.*

There is pleasure in *seeing* plants grow.

Walking is good exercise.

289. Meaning of Participle.—The word PARTICIPLE means ‘*participating, sharing*.’ The participles, while really adjectives, share also in the constructions of verbs.

290. The Present Participle.—There are two participles. The PRESENT PARTICIPLE, like the particip-

ial infinitive, ends in *ing*. As the name implies, it commonly denotes *present* action. In order to distinguish the present participle from the participial infinitive, we must remember that the former is used in the sense of an *adjective*, and the latter in the sense of a *noun*.

Ex. People *living* in cities long for a quiet country home.
[Present participle.]
He finds no joy in *living*. [Participial infinitive.]

291. The Past Participle.—The second participle has a variety of endings—**d** or **t** or **n**, or none at all.

Ex. *Loved*, from love; *burnt*, from burn; *given*, from give;
hurt, from hurt.

It is commonly called the **PAST PARTICIPLE**, because it usually belongs to *past* time. It is also called the **Passive Participle**, because it denotes completed action as a result of *suffering* or *enduring* the action expressed by the verb, and so cannot, like the present participle, take an object. For example, ‘a child *taught*’ has undergone *the process of teaching*; ‘a man *killed*’ has suffered *the act of killing*.

292. Participles Used like Ordinary Adjectives.—In the chapter on Adjectives [**242 d**], we noticed that both the present and the past participle may be used like ordinary adjectives, without seeming to share in the nature of verbs. Sometimes the participle is placed directly before the noun which it qualifies, and sometimes it is used as a predicate adjective.

Ex. She has *charming* manners.
No sound broke the *charmed* silence.
The music was *charming*.

293. Participles used as Nouns.—Like ordinary adjectives, the participles may be used as nouns.

Ex. Why seek ye the *living* among the dead?
They spoke of the *loved* and *lost*.

EXERCISE 72.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

Point out and name the infinitives and participles.

1. We noticed a little church standing near the road.
2. Nothing is more tiresome than standing.
3. The young bird was too weak to stand.
4. It is human nature to take delight in exciting admiration.
5. Drawing and painting taught without extra charge.
6. The professor will teach us to draw.
7. Drawing a hasty sketch, he set us the task of copying it.
8. The design, drawn and painted by hand, was copied on each piece of china.
9. Seeing is believing.
10. Seeing a crowd in the street, he ran to the door.
11. The face, once seen, is never forgotten.
12. The 17th of June saw the New England colonies standing here, side by side, to triumph or to fall together.
13. In fancy I see the farmers chasing the red-coats down the lane, pausing only to fire and load.
14. Still achieving, still pursuing, learn to labor and to wait.
15. Then came the queen, drest in white, drawn in a cart, accompanied by a priest, and escorted by soldiers.
16. Flocks of little birds, wheeling around the lighthouse, blinded and maddened by the light, dash themselves to death against the glass.
17. Taught by that Power that pities me, I learn to pity them.
18. They had exercises in running, wrestling, and playing ball.
19. To waste in youth is to want in age.
20. Great skill was shown by the Egyptians in cutting and polishing these huge stones.

EXERCISE 73.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

Write sentences containing the infinitives and participles of the following verbs:—

Hear; play; save; pass; carry; shoot; engrave.

EXERCISE 74.

PARTICIPLES.

Explain the use of the participles in the following sentences:—

1. What an interesting lecture!
2. He spoke for an hour, deeply interesting his hearers.
3. The injured, four in number, were taken to a neighboring farmhouse.
4. The injured arm was bandaged.
5. The clock, injured in moving, no longer strikes.
6. Nothing was left but a heap of smoking ruins.
7. The guide, smoking a long pipe, led the way.
8. Facts learned in youth are often remembered in age.
9. He had correspondents among the learned of all nations.
10. He is a learned man, but not a wise one.
11. Hearing a noise, the children were frightened.
12. The hearing ear and the seeing eye are alike wonderful.
13. We gain much from the society of the refined and cultured.
14. America is a refuge for the suffering and oppressed.
15. There is a splendid ship, gliding over the unruffled waters.
16. Camels crossing the desert go many days without water.
17. Blessed are the meek.
18. Blest with a fine climate and a fertile soil, the state has a magnificent future.
19. To-day the living ask thy aid.
20. Sweeping and eddying through them, rose the belated tide.

CONJUGATIONS.

294. Two Classes of Verbs.—There are two principal ways in which verbs form the preterit tense and the past participle from the root or simplest form of the verb. According as they follow one or the other of these ways, English verbs are divided into two great classes, called CONJUGATIONS, because they are unlike each other in their manner of *inflection* or *conjugation*.

295. The New Conjugation.—Verbs of the first class *regularly* form their preterit tense and the past participle, both alike, by adding **ed** or **d** to the root of the verb.

Ex. *Wish, wished, wished; love, loved, loved.*

These verbs belong to the NEW CONJUGATION. It is often called also the WEAK or the REGULAR CONJUGATION.

296. The Old Conjugation.—Verbs of the second class *regularly* form their *preterit* by a change in the vowel of the root, without any added ending, and their past participle by adding **en** or **n**. The vowel of the participle is either the same as that of the root, or the same as that of the *preterit*, or else different from either.

Ex. *Give, gave, given; speak, spoke, spoken; fly, flew, flown.*

These verbs belong to the OLD CONJUGATION. Its other names are the STRONG and the IRREGULAR CONJUGATION.

297. Principal Parts.—In both conjugations the simple form which we call the root is used for the infinitive, the imperative, the present subjunctive, and the plural and first person singular of the present indicative. The present participle and participial infinitive differ from them only by adding *ing*. We need to know, therefore, only *the infinitive, the preterit, and the past participle*, in order to understand the whole inflection of any verb. Hence these three are called the PRINCIPAL PARTS, and in describing any verb they are given.

298. Regular Verbs.—The following models show all the forms of two *regular* verbs, one from each conjugation. By ‘*regular*’ verbs we mean here those which follow closely the general rule of formations for the class to which they belong. In both classes are found verbs which depart more or less from this rule of formation. Sometimes the irregularity is so great that we might be in doubt as to whether the verb belongs to one or the other class.

299. I. NEW CONJUGATION.

Root, **row**. Prin. Parts, **row, rowed, rowed**.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1. I	row		1. we	row
2. thou	rowest		2. you (ye)	row
3. he (she, it)	rows, roweth		3. they	row

PTETERIT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1. I	rowed		1. we	rowed
2. thou	rowedst		2. you (ye)	rowed
3. he (she, it)	rowed		3. they	rowed

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1. (if) I	row		1. (if) we	row
2. (if) thou	row		2. (if) you (ye)	row
3. (if) he (she, it)	row		3. (if) they	row

PTETERIT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1. (if) I	rowed		1. (if) we	rowed
2. (if) thou	rowed		2. (if) you (ye)	rowed
3. (if) he (she, it)	rowed		3. (if) they	rowed

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing., **row or row thou** *Plu.*, **row or row ye**

INFINITIVES.

Root Infinitive, row or to row	Present Participle, rowing
Participial Infinitive, rowing	Past Participle, rowed

PARTICIPLES.

300. Number of Verbal Forms.—It will be seen from the model that the regular verb of the New Conjugation has, including participles, only six *different* forms: *namely, ROW, ROWEST, ROWS (or ROWETH), ROWED, BOWEDST, ROWING*.

301. II. OLD CONJUGATION.

Root, **give**. Prin. Parts, **give, gave, given**.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1.	I give		1.	we give
2.	thou givest		2.	you (ye) give
3.	he (she, it) gives, giveth		3.	they give

PTETERIT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1.	I gave		1.	we gave
2.	thou gavest		2.	you (ye) gave
3.	he (she, it) gave		3.	they gave

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1.	(if) I give		1.	(if) we give
2.	(if) thou give		2.	(if) you (ye) give
3.	(if) he (she, it) give		3.	(if) they give

PTETERIT TENSE.

<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Pers.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
1.	(if) I gave		1.	(if) we gave
2.	(if) thou gave		2.	(if) you (ye) gave
3.	(if) he (she, it) gave		3.	(if) they gave

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Sing., **give or give thou** *Plu.*, **give or give ye**

INFINITIVES.

Root Infinitive, give or to give	Present Participle, giving
Participial Infinitive, giving	Past Participle, given

PARTICIPLES.

302. Number of Verbal Forms. — The regular verb of the Old Conjugation has, including participles, seven different forms: namely, **GIVE, GIVEST, GIVES** (or **GIVETH**); **GAVE, GAVEST, GIVING, GIVEN**.

VERBS OF THE NEW CONJUGATION.

303. Signs of the New Conjugation. — The regular verbs of the NEW CONJUGATION form their preterit and their past participle alike by adding **ed** or **d** to the root or infinitive. In ordinary use, this ending makes another syllable only when the root ends with a **d** sound or a **t** sound.

Ex. *Waited, united, loaded, degraded.*

304. In poetry and in a solemn style of reading or speaking, the **ed** is sometimes sounded as a separate syllable after all roots.

Ex. “Yet shall the blue-eyed gentian look
Through fringed lids to heaven.”

305. The added **d** is sounded like **t**, if the root ends in the *sound* of **k**, **p**, **th** as in *thin, f, s* (including **x**), or **sh** (including **ch**).

Ex. *Baked, piqued, hoped, betrothed, ficed, paragraphed, laughed,
chased, raced, vexed, wished, hatched.*

IRREGULARITIES OF THIS CONJUGATION.

306. 1. Verbs which may take as an ending either **ed or **t**.**

Of these there are the following groups:—

(a) Some verbs in which the **d** is pronounced like **t**.

Ex. *Dress, dressed or drest; bless, blessed or blest; pass, passed or past.*

(b) Some verbs which have **l** or **n** as the final letter of the root.

Ex. *Learn, learned, learnt; spoil, spoiled, spoilt.*

Other verbs of this group are *burn, smell, dwell, spell, spill*, and *pen* (meaning ‘confine’).

- (c) Some verbs which have the root ending in **d** after **l**, **n**, or **r**.

Ex. *Build, builded or built; rend, rended or rent; gird, girded or girt; gild, gilded or gilt; bend, bended or bent.*

• Three such verbs, *lend, send*, and *spend*, take the irregular form only; *lent*, but not *lended*, etc.

307. 2. Verbs which change the sound of the vowel in the root.

The groups are as follows:—

- (a) Those verbs which shorten the vowel and add **t** as an ending.

Ex. *Feel, felt; mean, meant; keep, kept.*

Other examples are *deal, creep, sleep, sweep, weep.*

A few others, *kneel, leap, lean*, and *dream*, have either the regular or the irregular form; *dream, dreamed* or *dreamt*, etc.

- (b) A few verbs which change a final **v** or **z** sound of the root to **f** and **s** respectively, before adding **t**.

Ex. *Leave, left; lose, lost; cleave ('split'), cleft (or pret. *clove*, part. *cloven*); bereave, bereft (or *bereaved*); reave, refl (almost obsolete).*

Cleave ('adhere') is regular, though *clave* is sometimes found used in the preterit.

- (c) A few verbs which shorten the sound of the final vowel of the root, and add the ending **d**.

Ex. *Flee, fled; say, said; shoe, shod.*

Hear, heard is somewhat like this last group.

(d) Some verbs, all of which formerly ended in a **k** or a **g**-sound, and which change the vowel and final consonants into the sound *aught*.

Ex. *Beseech, besought; buy, bought; bring, brought.*

Other examples are *seek, catch, teach, think*.

Work, wrought takes also the regular ending in **ed**.

308. 3. Verbs which take no added ending.

The groups are as follows: —

(a) Verbs with roots ending in **d** or **t** after a long vowel, which shorten the vowel without taking any ending.

Ex. *Feed, fed; shoot, shot; lead, led.*

Other examples are *bleed, breed, speed, read, meet*.

Light, lit takes also the regular form *lighted*.

(b) Verbs, the roots of which end in **d** or **t**, and which make no change at all. The list is as follows: —

burst	hit	put	shed	spit	thrust
cast	hurt	quit	shred	split	wet
cost	knit	rid	shut	spread	whet
cut	let	set	slit	sweat	

A few of these, *knit, quit, sweat, wet*, and *whet*, take also the regular form in **ed**; and with *spit* the past *spat* was formerly used.

309. 4. Miscellaneous Irregularities.

(a) *Sell, sold; tell, told.*

(b) *Have, had; make, made; clothe, clad* (or *clothed*).

(c) *Dare, past durst* (or *dared*), participle *dared*.

(d) A few verbs have irregularities in tense-inflection.

Have is irregular in the present singular; I *have*, thou *hast*, he *has*.

Need uses either *needs* or *need* in the third singular present.

Dare has the same irregularity as *need*; and does not add *st* for the second person singular. I *durst*, thou *durst* — not *durstest*.

EXERCISE 75.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Write the principal parts of the following verbs:—

Feel; cast; flee; dream; spoil; lose; light; beseech; gild; pass; creep; send; leave; work; shoot; let; burn; kneel; lead; cleave ('adhere').

EXERCISE 76.

VERBAL FORMS.

According to Model I., write all the different verbal forms of each of the following:—

Walk; rob; love; wait; believe; wish; live; plan; seem; listen.

EXERCISE 77.

INFLECTION.

Inflect the present indicative of seek; build; tell; keep; spend.

The preterit indicative of leap; bless; learn; catch; dwell.

The present subjunctive of say; learn; think; have; read.

The preterit subjunctive of love; make; lead; lose; hear.

Give the infinitives and participles of shred; cost; bleed; work; bereave.

VERBS OF THE OLD CONJUGATION.

310. Marks of This Conjugation. — Regular verbs of the OLD CONJUGATION have these three marks:—

1. They change the vowel of the root, either in the preterit, or in the past participle, or in both.
2. They take no added ending in the preterit.
3. The ending of the participle, if it have any, is **n.**

311. Irregularities of the Old Conjugation.—With the growth of our language, so many changes have been made in the verbs of the Old Conjugation that it is hard to classify them in their present form. There has been a tendency to change the vowel, either of the preterit or of the participle, so as to make the two forms agree. Besides, the **n** or **en**, which was formerly the ending of the participles of all these verbs, is now lost in many of them, and either kept or left off at will in others. Some verbs which were formerly of the Old Conjugation now either sometimes or always make a part of their forms according to the New.

Ex. *Cleave* (to split), *clave* (clove or *cleft*), *cloven* (or *cleft*); *cleave, cleaved, cleaved.*

312. Groups of Verbs.—Because of these great changes, we do not try to classify these verbs strictly, as regular and irregular, but merely group together those which, as we use them now, are, on the whole, most alike in their inflection.

The following are the principal groups:—

313. Group 1.—*Sing, sang, sung.*

Like this are *ring, spring, swim, stink, begin.*

(a) *Drink, shrink, sink* have two forms each for the participle—*drunk, shrunk, sunk* and *drunken, shrunken, sunken*—the latter used chiefly as adjectives.

All these verbs *sometimes* form their preterit like the participle.

Ex. *Sung, sunk, swum.*

(b) Some verbs have been changed like *spin*. Its parts were formerly *spin, span, spun*, but the old preterit has gone out of use, and we have now *spin, spun, spun.*

Like this are *cling*, *sling*, *fling*, *sting*, *string*, *swing*, *wring*, *slink*, and *win* (*won*).

(c) In *run*, *ran*, *run* the participle is like the present.

314. Group 2. — *Bind*, *bound*, *bound*.

Like this are *find*, *grind*, *wind*.

Nearly like it is *fight*, *fought*, *fought*.

Fraught, from *freight*, is now used only as an adjective.

315. Group 3. — *Speak*, *spoke*, *spoken*. Preterit changed from *spake*.

Like this are *break*, *swear*, *wear*, *tear*, *bear* (participle *born* or *borne*).

Nearly like these, as now conjugated, are *steal*, *weave*, *tread*.

(a) *Get*, *beget*, *forget* once had *a* as the vowel of the preterit. Now, *get*, *got*, *gotten* (or *got*), etc.

(b) *Heave* and *shear*, usually of the New Conjugation, have also, one an Old preterit, *hove*, and the other an Old participle, *shorn*.

316. Group 4. — *Give*, *gave*, *given*.

A few verbs follow irregularly this model. Those most like it are *bid*, *bade* (or *bid*), *bidden*; *eat*, *ate* (or *eat*), *eaten*; *see*, *saw*, *seen*.

More irregular still are *beat*, *beat*, *beaten*; *lie*, *lay*, *lain*; *sit*, *sat*, *sat*.

317. Group 5. — *Take*, *took*, *taken*.

Like this are *shake* and *forsake*.

Somewhat like it are *draw*, *drew*, *drawn*; *slay*, *slew*, *slain*; also *stand*, *stood*, *stood*, which formerly had a participle differing from the preterit.

(a) *Wake* and *awake* either take the preterit tenses *woke* and *awoke*, or else follow the New Conjugation — *waked*, *awaked* (or *awakened*).

Stave sometimes takes the preterit *stove*. *Wax* sometimes has the participle *waxen*.

318. Group 6.—*Ride, rode, ridden.*

Like this are *rise*, *stride*, *smite*, *write*, *drive*, *strive*, and *thrive*, though the last follows also the New Conjugation — *thrive*, *thrived*, *thrived*.

(a) *Shine* and *abide*, which were formerly of this group, now form the participle like the preterit — *shone* and *abode*; and *shine* is sometimes of the New Conjugation — *shine*, *shined*, *shined*.

319. Group 7.—*Bite, bit, bitten.*

Like this are *chide*, *hide*, *slide*.

320. Group 8.—*Blow, blew, blown.*

Like this are *grow*, *know*, *throw*.

Somewhat like it is *fly*, *flew*, *flown*.

321. Group 9.—*Choose, chose, chosen.*

This is an example of a class of verbs that has nearly gone out of use.

Somewhat like it are *freeze*, *froze*, *frozen*, and *seethe*, *sod*, *sodden*, though the latter is rare and commonly follows the New Conjugation.

322. Group 10.—*Sow, strow* (or *strew*), and *show* are of the New Conjugation throughout, or else may make the participles *sown*, *strown* (or *strewn*), and *shown*.

(a) *Crow* is either of the New Conjugation or makes the preterit *crew*.

323. Group 11.—*Fall, fell, fallen; hold, held, holden* (rare), or *held*.

These two verbs form one class together, though they do not look alike.

324. Group 12.—These four verbs may be classed together:—

Dig, dug, dug (also of the New Conjugation); *stick, stuck, stuck*; *strike, struck, struck* (or *stricken*); *hang, hung, hung* (also of the New Conjugation).

325. Not Classified.—*Come, came, come; go, went, gone; do, did, done.*

Went is properly the preterit of *wend* (like *sent* from *send*), which now, as a separate verb, has the regular preterit *wended*.

Wit, with its present *wot*, its preterit *wist*, and no participle, is now nearly out of use.

Quoth is a verb formerly much used, but now nearly obsolete. It is used only in the preterit, first and third persons, singular number.

Ex. *Quoth I; quoth he.*

326. Be is made up of parts coming from several different roots, and is so irregular that its full conjugation needs to be given. It is as follows:—

Principal Parts, **be, was, been.**

PRESENT.

INDICATIVE.

- | | |
|--------|-----|
| 1. am | are |
| 2. art | are |
| 3. is | are |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- | | |
|-------|----|
| 1. be | be |
| 2. be | be |
| 3. be | be |

PREFERIT.

INDICATIVE.

1. was were
 2. wast (wert) were
 3. was were

SUBJUNCTIVE.

1. were were
 2. wert (were) were
 3. were were

IMPERATIVE.

Sing., be or be thou *Plu.*, be or be ye

INFINITIVES.

be or to be, being

PARTICIPLES.

being, been

EXERCISE 78.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Write the principal parts of the following verbs.

Sow; see; chide; begin; wear; rise; crow; bid; grind; forsake; run; shine; hold; rise; dig; tread; thrive; win; know; forget.

EXERCISE 79.

VERBAL FORMS.

According to Model II., write all the different verbal forms of the following :—

Sing; bind; speak; sit; take; ride; bite; blow; choose; fall.

EXERCISE 80.

INFLECTION.

Inflect the present indicative of smite; slay; fly; spin; sit.

The preterit indicative of lie ('recline'); go; tear; steal; drink.

The present subjunctive of come; see; do; awake; speak.

The preterit subjunctive of bid; tread; fight; win; beat.

Give the infinitives and participles of do; hold; show; sink; hang.

327. Alphabetical List of Irregular Verbs.—Below are given, in alphabetical order, the verbs of the Old Conjugation and the irregular verbs of the New, with reference from each to the paragraph where its conjugation is described.

abide, 318	crow, 322	hear, 307	read, 308
awake, 317	cut, 308	heave, 315	reave, 307
be, 326	dare, 309	hide, 319	rend, 306
bear, 315	deal, 307	hit, 308	rid, 308
beat, 316	dig, 324	hold, 323	ride, 318
begin, 313	do, 325	hurt, 308	ring, 313
bend, 306	draw, 317	keep, 307	rise, 318
bereave, 307	dream, 307	kneel, 307	run, 313
beseech, 307	drink, 313	knit, 308	say, 307
bid, 316	drive, 318	know, 320	see, 316
bind, 314	dwell, 306	lead, 308	seek, 307
bite, 319	eat, 316	lean, 307	seethe, 321
bleed, 308	fall, 323	leap, 307	sell, 309
blow, 320	feed, 308	learn, 306	send, 306
break, 315	feel, 307	leave, 307	set, 308
breed, 308	fight, 314	lend, 306	shake, 317
bring, 307	find, 314	let, 308	shall, 329
build, 306	flee, 307	lie, 316	shear, 315
burn, 306	fling, 313	light, 308	shed, 308
burst, 308	fly, 320	lose, 307	shine, 318
buy, 307	forsake, 317	make, 309	shoe, 307
can, 329	freeze, 321	may, 329	shoot, 308
cast, 308	freight, 314	mean, 307	show, 322
catch, 307	get, 315	meet, 308	shred, 308
chide, 319	gild, 306	mote, 329	shrink, 313
choose, 321	gird, 306	must, 329	shut, 308
cleave, 307, 311	give, 316	need, 309	sing, 313
cling, 313	go, 325	ought, 329	sink, 313
clothe, 309	grind, 314	pen, 306	sit, 316
come, 325	grow, 320	put, 308	slay, 317
cost, 308	hang, 324	quit, 308	sleep, 307
creep, 307	have, 309	quoth, 325	slide, 319

sling, 313	spread, 308	sweep, 307	weave, 315
slink, 313	spring, 313	swim, 313	weep, 307
slit, 308	stand, 317	swing, 313	wend, 325
smell, 306	stave, 317	take, 317	wet, 308
smite, 318	steal, 315	teach, 307	whet, 308
sow, 322	stick, 324	tear, 315	will, 329
speak, 315	sting, 313	tell, 309	win, 313
speed, 308	stink, 313	think, 307	wind, 314
spell, 306	stride, 318	thrive, 318	wit, 325
spend, 306	strike, 324	throw, 320	work, 307
spill, 306	string, 313	thrust, 308	wring, 313
spin, 313	strive, 318	tread, 315	write, 318
spit, 308	strow, -ew, 322	wake, 317	
split, 308	swear, 315	wax, 317	
spoil, 306	sweat, 308	wear, 315	

AUXILIARY VERBS.

328. There are a few irregular verbs, chiefly used along with the infinitives and participles of other verbs, to form verb-phrases or "compound tenses," and having neither infinitives nor participles of their own. These are called the AUXILIARY (or 'helping') VERBS. They are *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, and *ought*. The verbs *do*, *be*, and *have* are used in much the same way, although they have infinitives and participles of their own.

329. Forms of the Auxiliary Verbs.

SECOND PERSON SINGULAR.

Present.	Past.	Participle.	Present.	Past.
Can,	could,	—	thou canst,	thou couldst.
May,	might,	—	thou mayest (mayst),	thou mightest.
Shall,	should,	—	thou shalt,	thou shouldst.
Will,	would,	—	thou wilt,	thou wouldst.
Must,	—	—	thou must.	—
Ought,	—	—	thou oughtest.	—
Be (am), was,	been,	thou art,		thou wast (wert).
Do,	did,	done,	thou dost (doest),	thou didst.
Have,	had,	had,	thou hast,	thou hadst.

Must and *ought* were originally preterits. The old present of *ought* was *owe*; that of *must* was *mote*.

COMPOUND VERBAL FORMS.

330. Verb-Phrases. — A VERB-PHRASE is a compound of an infinitive or a participle with an auxiliary verb. It is intended to express some variation in *time* or *manner* that cannot be expressed by any of the simple or inflected forms of the verb.

Ex. Wars *shall cease*. [The auxiliary *shall* and the infinitive *cease* combine to express the idea of *future time*.]

It *has rained*. [The auxiliary *have* and the past participle of *rain* combine to express the idea of *completed action*.]

I. EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES.

331. In the conjugation of the verb, we learned that the form of the present tense, *I row* or *I give*, is used to express action in present time, and *I rowed* or *I gave*, to express action in past time. But there are other ways in which we may express the same difference of time. For example, we may say, *I do row*, *I do give*, *I did row* and *I did give*, and, in the imperative, *Do row* and *Do give*, thus making the expression more emphatic. Hence these verb-phrases are called EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES, or the EMPHATIC PRESENT and PRETERIT TENSES of the verb.

332. Negative and Interrogative Uses. — In asking a question, we say *Do I row?* and *Did I give?* rather than *Row I?* and *Gave I?* In negative assertions, also, we commonly use *do* and *did*.

Ex. *I do not row*, rather than *I row not*.
I did not give, rather than *I gave not*.

333. Explanation of the Emphatic Verb-Phrase.

— In such phrases as *I do give* and *I did give*, the word *give* is not the bare root of the word, but the infinitive without *to*. Just so we say, without using *to*, '*I see him give*,' and with *to*, '*I wish him to give*.' The real verbs in these phrases are *do* and *did*. *Give* is the infinitive or verbal noun used as the *object* of these verbs. The phrase *I do give* means strictly, *I do* (or perform) *an act of giving*.

EXERCISE 81.**EMPHATIC VERB-PHRASES.**

Point out and explain the emphatic verb-phrases, the negative and interrogative forms.

1. And everybody praised the Duke, who this great fight did win.
2. When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake.
3. Dost thou not know me?
4. I did not think to shed a tear.
5. When she did speak, it was in her usual manner.
6. Do try to keep still.
7. The bells did so ring that they could not sleep.
8. He does try to be quiet.
9. Do they not know this?
10. Do the Chinese read backwards?
11. He does not cheat, if they do say so.
12. There are places where the sun does shine in the night.
13. Do not aim to please yourself.
14. Dost thou love life, then do not squander time; for that is the stuff life is made of.
15. Gentle Spring! in sunshine clad, well dost thou thy power display!

2. PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

334. If we wish to speak of an action as continuing or *in progress*, we use such phrases as *I am giving*, *I was giving*. To make these phrases, we use *be* as an auxiliary, combining its present and preterit tenses with the present participle *giving*. Such phrases are called PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES, or the PROGRESSIVE PRESENT and PRETERIT TENSES of the verb.

335. Explanation. — The real verbs in these phrases are *am* and *was*. The participle is used like a *predicate adjective*, qualifying the subject *I*, just as the adjectives *generous* and *liberal* qualify *I* in the sentences *I am generous, I was liberal*.

EXERCISE 82.

PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

Point out and explain the progressive verb-phrases.

1. They are listening to the music.
2. Children are playing in the street.
3. Are the soldiers coming?
4. The stars are shining.
5. Is it not raining?
6. The flag is flying.
7. Bees were humming among the flowers.
8. Strange flower-like animals are growing in the depths of the sea.
9. A great eagle was soaring overhead.
10. The troops were marching towards Atlanta.
11. I am waiting for the omnibus.
12. Who is winning the battle?
13. The leaves are falling.
14. The bell is tolling.
15. The river was rising and overflowing its banks.
16. Somewhere the birds are singing evermore.

3. FUTURE-TENSE-PHRASES.

336. If we wish to express the idea that something is to be done in *time to come*, we use as auxiliaries the present tenses of the verbs *shall* and *will*, putting as the *object* of these verbs the infinitive of the verb expressing the action. Since the phrase *I shall* (or *will*) *give* expresses action in future time, we may call a FUTURE TENSE of the verb.

337. Use of Shall and Will. — *Shall* means originally ‘owe, be under obligation’; *will* means ‘wish, resolve, determine.’ *I shall give* means, then, ‘I am bound or obliged to give’; and *I will give* means ‘I intend or am determined to give.’ Out of this differ-

ence in meaning has grown an intricate difference in use, for which we may give the following rules:—

1. To predict that something will happen, use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third.

Ex. *I shall* return next Monday. *You will* be here to-morrow. *He will* be elected this year.

2. To promise or to express Determination on the part of the speaker, use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third.

Ex. *I will* wait for you. *You shall* obey me. *He shall* repent of it.

3. In asking Questions, use *shall* or *will*, according as one or the other is to be used in reply.

Ex. *Shall* you stay? *I think I shall*, if I am asked.
Will you stay? *I will stay*, if I can help you.

Will is not used in questions where the subject is of the first person.

Ex. *Shall* I write? not ‘*Will* I’?

So, also, in reporting the statement of another person, we naturally use the auxiliaries as he used them.

Ex. *I shall* expect you. *She says she shall* expect you.
I will not consent. *You say you will* not consent.

EXERCISE 83.

SHALL AND WILL.

Explain the use of shall and will.

1. Who will help us now?
2. The king will help us.
3. The children shall have a holiday.
4. I hope you will be happy.
5. *I shall* be sorry to hear of his failure.
6. Shall we take a

walk? 7. Will you go with me? 8. I have sworn that I will not go back until he shall grant my request. 9. He wishes to know if you will answer the letter, or if he shall. 10. How shall I endure the suspense? 11. He asks how he shall endure it. 12. Stay and I will return with you. 13. Shall the wicked be honored like the good? 14. You shall see the general to-morrow, and he will give you your orders. 15. Thou shalt never see my face again.

4. CONDITIONAL VERB-PHRASES.

338. *Should* and *would*, the preterit tenses of *shall* and *will*, form with the infinitives phrases which may be used to make a conditional statement; that is, one which depends upon a *condition*. They are, therefore, called **CONDITIONAL VERB-PHRASES**.

Ex. *I should go* (if I could get away).
He would give (if he had the means).

Often the phrase expresses the condition itself.

Ex. *If it should rain*, we could not go.

339. Use of *Should* and *Would*.—1. The difference between *should* and *would* is, in general, the same as that between *shall* and *will*; but in expressing a *condition*, *should* may be used with all the persons.

Ex. If *I should take two* and *you should take five*, and they *should take three apiece*, how many *would* be left?

2. *Should* is sometimes used in the sense of *ought*, to express duty or obligation, and *would* in the sense of *was determined* or *was in the habit of*, to express purpose or custom.

Ex. You *should* respect the aged. They *should be* grateful for it.

He *would go*, in spite of the storm. The Greeks *would offer* sacrifices before giving battle.

340. Difference between the Future and the Conditional. — The Conditional has more the character of a MODE. Its difference from the future is much like the difference between the indicative and the subjunctive. Indeed, the conditional phrase is often used where the preterit subjunctive might be used instead.

Ex. If I *were* so unlucky [Subj.]. If I *should be* so unlucky [Conditional].

EXERCISE 84.

CONDITIONAL VERB-PHRASES.

Point out and explain the conditional phrases.

1. You would laugh if you should hear the story.
2. I should not wonder if he would come.
3. Should he succeed, he would be happy.
4. Grandmother would knit for hours at a time.
5. She should not work so steadily.
6. If it would not be too much trouble, I should like to have you do an errand for me.
7. If you should hear of a situation, I wish you would let me know.
8. He would have his own way.
9. I should be glad if it would stop raining.
10. If it should be cold, you would need your coat.
11. Why would he go to sea?
12. Why should **he** be blamed?
13. I asked her whether she should be at home, and she said she should be.
14. She said she would go, if it would please me.
15. We should strive to imitate what we most admire in others.
16. The Indians would suddenly spring upon the little villages.

5. PERFECT-TENSE-PHRASES.

341. To express completed action, we use the verb *have* as an auxiliary, combining with its present and preterit tenses the past participle (sometimes called the *perfect* participle) of the verb denoting action. These phrases may be called the **PERFECT** (or **Complete**) **TENSES** of the verb.

1. **Perfect Tense.**—(Sometimes called the Present Perfect.) To denote that an action is completed *at present*, we use *have* with the past participle.

Ex. I *have given* him a dollar. He *has thanked* me for it.

2. **Pluperfect Tense.**—(Sometimes called the Past Perfect.) To denote that an action was completed at some stated time *in the past*, we use *had* with the past participle.

Ex. I *had given* it away before you came.

3. **Future Perfect Tense.**—To speak of an action as completed at some *future* time, we use the future tense of the auxiliary, *shall* or *will have*, with the past participle.

Ex. By next year I *shall have given* five hundred dollars.

342. Six Tenses of the Verb.—From the foregoing, it will be seen that we have six so-called TENSES of the verb: two which are made by *inflection*, the PRESENT and the PRETERIT; and four others which are made by the *use of auxiliaries*, the FUTURE, the PERFECT, the PLUPERFECT, and the FUTURE PERFECT.

EXERCISE 85.

PERFECT-TENSE-PHRASES.

Point out and explain the perfect-tense-phrases.

1. It had snowed all night.
2. He has bought a farm.
3. Who has had my knife?
4. I have worked while they have rested.
5. Shall they have fought in vain?
6. The army had lost a brave general.
7. You had sung the song.
8. Hast thou not heard the command?
9. Ye will not have lived for naught.
10. The nation has increased in wealth and power.
11. Will he have returned by nine o'clock?
12. By that time, we shall have waited.

four hours. 13. Hadst thou considered well before thou consentedst? 14. Who hath believed our report? 15. Wilt thou give heed to my warning? 16. We had had a long and stormy voyage.

6. POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES.

343. To express *power*, *possibility*, *obligation*, or *necessity*, we use the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought*, together with the infinitive of some other verb. Such phrases are called POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES.

344. Difference between May and Can. —*May* implies permission; *can* implies ability. Both are generally used to denote present time. *Might* and *could* are used in a *conditional* sense.

- Ex.** You *may* give the child a penny.
- You *can* write well if you try.
- You *might* go if I *could* spare you.

345. Must and Ought. —*Must* and *ought* make phrases which may be called OBLIGATIVE forms, because they imply *obligation* or *necessity*. Both are used only in the present tense.

- Ex.** You *must* pay better attention.
- He *ought* not to say such things.

EXERCISE 86.

POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES.

Point out and explain the potential verb-phrases.

1. May I speak to my sister?
2. Can they speak French?
3. You *may* speak if it is necessary.
4. You *might* recite "The Raven," if you *could* learn it in time.
5. We *must* work while the day lasts.
6. They *ought* to know better.
7. You *cannot* learn German in one year.
8. Thou *oughtest* to have foreseen this.
9. Couldst thou know the whole truth, thou *mightst not rejoice*.
10. If he *can* play the violin, he *may practise* on mine.

11. We ought to have told him that he might use it whenever he could find time. 12. One may live as a conqueror, a king, or a magistrate; but he must die as a man. 13. Never put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day.

PERFECT AND PROGRESSIVE FORMS.

346. 1. By adding the *past participle* of a verb to the conditional, potential, and obligative forms of the verb *have*, we may make the CONDITIONAL PERFECT, POTENTIAL PERFECT, and OBLIGATIVE PERFECT of that verb.

Ex. *I could have seen ; You may have thought ; He must have known.*

347. 2. By adding the *present participle* of a verb to the corresponding tense of the verb *be*, we may make the PROGRESSIVE CONDITIONAL, PROGRESSIVE POTENTIAL, etc.

Ex. *I could be writing ; He should have been studying ; You may be considering ; They ought to be working.*

348. 3. Infinitives and Participles. — In the same way the INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES may be combined with forms of *be* and *have*, as follows:—

ROOT-INFITIVE.	PROGRESSIVE FORM.
give or to give	be giving or to be giving
PERFECT INFITIVE.	
have given or to have given	have been giving or to have been giving
PARTICIPIAL INFITIVE and PRESENT PARTICIPLE.	
giving (itself progressive)	
PERFECT PARTICIPLE.	
having given	having been giving
PAST (or Passive) PARTICIPLE.	
given	being given

EXERCISE 87.

VERB-PHRASES.

Name and explain the verb-phrases.

1. We might have walked.
2. You must have been dreaming.
3. The tide must be falling.
4. He ought to have had help.
5. They should be exercising.
6. The rose may have blossomed.
7. Thou canst not have considered.
8. The wind must have blown.
9. He could have been making his boat.
10. She should have told her mother.
11. What can you be thinking of?
12. Ought they to have been working?
13. We may have been giving too much time to the study.
14. If Persia had conquered, who would have governed Athens?

EXERCISE 88.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

Name and explain the infinitives and participles.

1. He wishes to be going.
2. I shall be happy to accept the offer.
3. Having reached the brow of the hill, we turned to take a view.
4. He ought to have been preparing for college.
5. Having been waiting for such a chance, I was ready to start at once.
6. They expected to have met us last evening.
7. The meeting of these old soldiers was enough to have moved the sternest heart.
8. Being disturbed, the birds flew away.
9. The American army, having destroyed Fort Erie, went into winter quarters, thus closing a brilliant campaign.
10. The mother was thought to be dying, with her children weeping around her.
11. Having been invited to sing, she begged to be excused.

349. Synopsis of the Active Forms of the Verb.

Root, **give**. Principal Parts, **give, gave, given**.

TENSES.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.	EMPHATIC FORMS.
Indicative.	Pres. give	am giving	do give
	Pret. gave	was giving	did give
	Fu. shall or will give	shall or will be giving	
	Perf. have given	have been giving	
	Plu. had given	had been giving	
	Fu. Perf. shall or will have given	shall or will have been giving	

SYNOPSIS OF THE ACTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.—*Continued.*

	TENSES.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.	EMPHATIC FORMS.
<i>Subjunc-tive.</i>	Pres. Pret.	give gave	be giving were giving	do give did give
<i>Conditional.</i>	Pres.	should or would give	should or would be giving	
	Perf.	should or would have given	should or would have been giving	
<i>Potential.</i>	Pres.	may or can give	may or can be giving	
	Past	might or could give	might or could be giving	
	Perf.	may or can have given	may or can have been giving	
	Plu.	might or could have given	might or could have been giving	
<i>Obligative.</i>	Pres.	must or ought to give	must or ought to be giving	
	Perf.	must or ought to have given	must or ought to have been giving	
<i>Impera-tive.</i>	Pres.	give	be giving	do give, do be giving

INFINITIVES.

Root. Perf. Part.	(to) give (to) have given giving	(to) be giving (to) have been giving	
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PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Perf. Past	giving having given given	having been giving being given	
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7. PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

350. If we wish to speak of a person or a thing as enduring or being the *object* of the action expressed by the verb, we make use of PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES. These are formed by putting the past (or passive) participle with the various forms, simple and compound, of the verb *be*.

For example, instead of saying ‘You have sent him,’ ‘I cannot persuade you,’ ‘They ought to have done it,’ we may say *He has been sent*; *You cannot be persuaded*; *It ought to have been done*.

351. Passive Conjugation.—These passive verb-phrases, taken together, make up what is called the PASSIVE CONJUGATION of the verb, because by means of them we take what is the *object* of any verbal form in the ordinary (or active) conjugation, and turn it into a *subject*, representing it as enduring or suffering the action expressed by the verb.

Ex. ACTIVE: The servant has lighted the lamp.

PASSIVE: The lamp *has been lighted* by the servant.

EXERCISE 89.

PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

Change the active forms to passive verb-phrases.

1. Waving grain covers the fields.
2. We celebrate the day.
3. Clouds have almost hidden the moon.
4. Shakespeare may have trodden this very street.
5. The flood must have carried away the bridge.
6. Ivy grew over the crumbling walls.
7. The Pilgrims founded a new nation.
8. The countess is to give a reception.
9. Electricity can ring bells.
10. The English settled Virginia.
11. Historians say that Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence.
12. The father was to give his eldest son a watch.
13. The rain has injured the crops.
14. You should have consulted my wishes.

352. Synopsis of the Passive Forms of the Verb.

	TENSES.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.
<i>Indicative.</i>	Pres. Pret. Fu. Perf. Plu. Fu. Perf.	am given was given shall or will be given have been given had been given shall or will have been given	am being given was being given
<i>Subjunctive.</i>	Pres. Pret.	be given were given	
<i>Conditional.</i>	Pres. Perf.	should or would be given should or would have been given	
<i>Potential.</i>	Pres. Past Perf. Plu.	may or can be given might or could be given may or can have been given might or could have been given	
<i>Obligative.</i>	Pres. Perf.	must or ought to be given must or ought to have been given	
<i>Imperative.</i>	Pres.	be given	

INFINITIVES.

Root Perfect.	(to) be given (to) have been given	
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PARTICIPLES.

Past Perfect	given having been given	being given
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353. No Emphatic Forms.—Since the verb *be*, the auxiliary of the passive, has no EMPHATIC tense-forms, there are none in the passive conjugation. We say, for example, '*I am struck*', but never '*I do be struck*'.

354. Progressive Forms.—Within the last half-century there have come into common use PROGRESSIVE forms for the present and preterit tenses of the indicative. By some, these are still regarded as bad English; but they are used by many of the most careful writers and speakers.

Ex. ACTIVE: They *are building* the house. They *were printing* the book.

PASSIVE: The house *is being built*. The book *was being printed*.

355. Difference between Passive and Progressive Forms.—To make the PROGRESSIVE forms of the Active Conjugation, we use the forms of *be* with the *present* participle, [*rowing*, *giving*] which marks a thing as itself *acting*. To make the PASSIVE tenses, we use the same forms of *be* with the *past* or *passive* participle, [*rowed*, *given*] which marks a thing as *acted upon* or *enduring* the action.

Ex. PROGRESSIVE ACTIVE: They *have been striking*.

PASSIVE: They *have been struck*.

356. Participles as Predicate Adjectives.—In both the passive and progressive forms the participle has the real value of a predicate adjective, describing or qualifying the subject [46]. But we must not suppose that whenever the past participle is used with the verb *be* it makes a passive verb-phrase. Sometimes the participle does not seem to share in the nature of the verb,

but is used as a predicate adjective merely, and is parsed like any other adjective. In such cases, it does not help to make a passive phrase.

Ex. He is *fatigued*. Here *fatigued* is simply a predicate adjective, just as *weary* would be, if used in its place.

357. How to Know Passive Verb-Phrases. — In order to tell whether the past participle with the verb *be* makes a passive verb-phrase, we must notice whether the participle denotes the *receiving* or *enduring* of the action; that is, whether it is used in a *passive* sense. If it is, we can commonly change the sentence to the active form. If the participle denotes simply *condition*, it must be used purely as an adjective.

Ex. **PASSIVE:** He was *fatigued* by his exertions.

ACTIVE: His exertions *fatigued* him.

ADJECTIVE: He was *fatigued* [that is, in a *condition* of fatigue].

358. Passive Phrases Made from Transitive Verbs.

— Since in a passive verb-phrase the object of the action expressed by the verb is turned into a subject, passive phrases are regularly made only from transitive verbs. The subject of the active verb is the *doer* of the action; the subject of the passive verb is the *receiver* of the action.

359. Intransitive Verbs Made Passive. — Sometimes the object of a preposition is made the subject of a passive verb-phrase, even when the verb in the sentence is *intransitive*. In such cases, the preposition is used as if it were an adverb qualifying the verb.

Ex. **ACTIVE:** We must not *look at the sun*.

PASSIVE: The sun *must not be looked at*.

360. Indirect Object Made the Subject.— Sometimes the *indirect* object of a verb is made the subject of the passive verb-phrase.

Ex. ACTIVE: They promised *me* a present.

PASSIVE: *I* was promised a present.

EXERCISE 90.

PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES, AND PARTICIPLES USED AS PREDICATE ADJECTIVES.

Point out and explain the passive verb-phrases, and the participles used merely as predicate adjectives.

1. You would be taught your duty.
2. She was talked about.
3. The very door-step is worn with my feet.
4. The coat is worn and faded.
5. The rabbits had been caught in traps.
6. He was refused the protection of the law.
7. The carriage has been sent for.
8. The house was deserted.
9. The dog is lost.
10. These lessons must be learned in youth.
11. She is wedded; her husband is banished.
12. They were well laughed at.
13. The prisoner was being tried for murder.
14. Robert of Lincoln is gayly dressed.
15. Lost time cannot be recalled.
16. The question was being discussed.
17. The handles are carved.
18. They may have been carved by some Swiss peasant.
19. The general was given a reception.
20. That ought to have been thought of.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS ACCORDING TO FORM.

361. VERBS, like nouns and adjectives, may be divided, according to their form, into SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

362. Simple Verbs.—SIMPLE VERBS are such as *be, go, sit, see, write*.

363. Derivative Verbs.—The most important classes of DERIVATIVE VERBS are the following:—

(a) VERBS DERIVED BY SUFFIXES FROM ADJECTIVES OR (rarely) FROM NOUNS.

en, *broaden, harden, fasten, sicken, lengthen, frighten.*
ize, *solemnize, humanize, brutalize, terrorize, authorize.*

(b) VERBS DERIVED BY PREFIXES FROM OTHER VERBS.

a ,	<i>awake, arise, arouse.</i>
for ,	<i>forget, forgive, forbear.</i>
un ,	<i>undo, unbind, unfasten.</i>
re ,	<i>repay, return, recapture.</i>
be ,	<i>befall, become, bespeak.</i>
mis ,	<i>mistake, misspell, misbehave.</i>
dis ,	<i>dislike, disown, displease.</i>

(c) VERBS DERIVED BY PREFIXES FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

be, *behead, belabor, benight, benumb, belittle, befoul.*
en or em, *enthrone, endanger, encourage, embody, enlarge, ennable, embitter.*
re, *refresh, renew.*

(d) VERBS DERIVED BY BOTH PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

Ex. *embolden, enlighten, dishearten.*

(e) VERBS DERIVED FROM OTHER VERBS BY VOWEL CHANGES.

Ex. *fell from fall; lay from lie; set from sit; drench from drink.*

364. Compound Verbs. — COMPOUND VERBS are commonly made from simple verbs, by the use of Prefixes.

(a) PREFIXES WHICH ARE PREPOSITIONS WITH THE VALUE OF ADVERBS.

fore,	<i>foresee, forbade, foretell.</i>
over,	<i>overspread, overturn, overlook.</i>
out,	<i>outwit, outnumber, outgrow.</i>
under,	<i>undergo, understand, undersell.</i>
up,	<i>uplift, upset, uphold.</i>
with,	<i>withstand, withhold, withdraw.</i>

(b) PREFIXES WHICH ARE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

Ex. *partake* [to take *part*], *browbeat*, *backslide*, *fulfil* [to fill *full*], *whitewash*, *backbite*, *hoodwink*.

365. Other Parts of Speech Turned into Verbs. —

Many nouns and adjectives are turned into verbs, without any change in form, except sometimes a change in the final consonant.

Ex. to <i>throng</i> or <i>crowd</i> a room.	to <i>black</i> a shoe.
to <i>time</i> a race.	to <i>beard</i> or <i>face</i> a foe.
to <i>witness</i> a will.	to <i>worship</i> God.
to <i>brown</i> a cake.	to <i>round</i> an angle.
to <i>smooth</i> a wrinkle.	to <i>lower</i> a bucket.
to <i>halve</i> an apple.	to <i>breathe</i> a prayer.
to <i>shoe</i> a horse.	to <i>word</i> a letter.

USES OF THE VERB.

366. The Predicate of a Sentence. — No sentence can be made except by means of a verb, since the verb is the only part of speech that asserts or declares or *predicates*. All that is really needed besides the verb, to make a complete sentence, is the name of some person or thing, to stand as the subject of the verb. This name may be a noun, or its usual substitute, a pronoun; or it may be some other part of speech, or a phrase, or a clause, used *substantively* [133]. We need now to notice how the subject and predicate are related to each other.

367. Government and Agreement. — We have learned [279] that the verb has two number-forms, one to be used with a singular subject, and the other with a plural subject. Sometimes these forms are different: for example, *Man laughs*, *men laugh*. Often they are precisely alike: for example, *I laugh*, *we laugh*. As the distinction of their use does not depend on anything in the meaning of the verb itself, but only on the kind of subject, we speak of the subject as directing or GOVERNING in the choice of number-forms. The subject being given, the verb is compelled to AGREE with it in respect to number.

Again, the verb may have different forms for use with subjects of the first, second, and third persons; and these forms we call the first, second, and third persons of the verb itself. For example, *I laugh*, *thou laughest*, *he laughs*. Here, again, it is the subject that GOVERNS the choice, and the verb must AGREE in person with its subject. It follows, then, that a verb must agree with its subject in both person and number.

368. Verbs Used Impersonally. — Verbs used with the subject *it*, not referring to any definite actor, but helping to express the idea that some action or process is going on, are called IMPERSONAL VERBS, or are said to be used IMPERSONALLY. [163 b.]

'**Ex.** *It is growing cold.* *It will fare ill with him.*

369. Verbs Used Reflexively. — Sometimes the object of a verb denotes the same person or thing as the subject; as, for example, *I dressed myself*. The verb is then said to be used REFLEXIVELY, the action being made to 'turn back' upon the actor, instead of 'passing over,' transitively, to a different object; as in the sentence, *I dressed a doll*.

370. Plural Verbs Used with Collective Nouns.—A plural verb is often used with a collective noun which is singular in form, when we have in mind the separate individuals composing the collection.

Ex. *The crowd throng the streets.*

The victorious crew are escorted home in triumph.

371. Plural Verbs Used with Connected Subjects.—A plural verb is used with a subject made up of two or more words connected by the conjunction *and*, unless the words refer to the same person or thing, or are preceded by *each*, *every*, *many a*, or *no*.

Ex. *My father and mother are here.*

The rich and the poor meet together.

My friend and classmate goes with me to-day.

Every day and every hour has its opportunities for good.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING VERBS.

372. In parsing a *simple verb*, we have to tell

1. The conjugation — whether old or new.
2. Principal parts.
3. Whether transitive or intransitive.
4. Mode.
5. Tense.
6. Inflection of the tense.
7. Person and number.
8. Agreement with its subject.

373. In parsing a *verb-phrase*, we have to tell

1. The kind.
2. The parts of which it is composed. (Auxiliary and infinitive or participle.)
3. Its use. (For example, as the *future tense* of a verb.)
4. Inflection of the tense.

The principal verb in the phrase may then be parsed by mentioning

1. Conjugation.
2. Principal parts.
3. Whether transitive or intransitive.
4. Person and number.
5. Agreement with its subject.

EXAMPLES.

Think of the dangers to which he *was exposed*, and the privations from which he *must have suffered*. *Do you suppose* that he *forgets* or ever *can forget* them? No: not if he *live* a hundred years.

1. *Think* is an irregular verb of the New Conjugation. Principal parts, *think*, *thought*, *thought*. Intransitive; imperative mode; present tense. Second person, either singular or plural number, to agree with its subject *you*, understood.

2. *Was exposed* is a passive verb-phrase; made up of the pret-erit tense of the verb *be* and the past participle of the verb *expose*, the two forming the passive preterit indicative of the verb *expose*.

Inflected, etc. *Expose* is a regular verb of the New Conjugation. Principal parts, *expose*, *exposed*, *exposed*. Transitive; third person, singular number, to agree with the subject *he*.

3. *Must have suffered* is a potential verb-phrase; made up of the auxiliary *must have* and the past participle of the verb *suffer*, the two forming the obligative perfect of the verb *suffer*. Inflected, etc.

The auxiliary *must have* is itself a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary *must* and the infinitive *have*, the two forming the obligative present of the verb *have*.

Suffer is a regular verb of the New Conjugation. Principal parts, *suffer*, *suffered*, *suffered*. Transitive; third person, singular number, to agree with the subject *he*.

4. *Do suppose* is an emphatic verb-phrase, used interrogatively; made up of the present tense of *do* and the infinitive of the verb *suppose*, the two forming the present interrogative indicative of the verb *suppose*. Inflected, etc. *Suppose* is a regular verb of the New

Conjugation. Principal parts, *suppose, supposed, supposed*. Transitive; second person, either singular or plural number, to agree with its subject *you*.

5. *Forgets* is a regular verb of the Old Conjugation. Principal parts, *forget, forgot, forgotten*. Transitive; indicative mode; present tense. Inflected, etc. Third person, singular number, to agree with its subject *he*.

6. *Can forget* is a potential verb-phrase; made up of the auxiliary *can* and the infinitive of the verb *forget*, the two forming the present potential of the verb *forget*. Inflected, etc.

Forget is a verb, etc.

7. *Live* is a regular verb of the New Conjugation. Principal parts, *live, lived, lived*. Intransitive; subjunctive mode; present tense. Inflected, etc. Third person, singular number, to agree with its subject *he*.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. We did not do these things in the good old days.
2. Judges and senates have been bought for gold.
3. She is reading about the coming of the king.
4. If you would learn the value of money, go and try to borrow some.
5. Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour.
6. Who would be free, himself must strike the blow.
7. If thou hadst said him nay, it had been sin.
8. The Picts were never heard of in history after these great defeats.
9. They feared that he might have been carried off by gypsies.
10. This work cannot be dispensed with by any book-lover.
11. They shall pursue thee until thou perish.
12. Knowledge and timber should not be too much used until they are seasoned.
13. Chained in the market-place he stood.
14. When I shall have brought them into the land, then will they turn to other gods.
15. In 1805 the naval victory of Nelson at Trafalgar breaks the power of the French fleet.
16. Men were grown impatient of reproof.

17. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year.
18. If the world be worth thy winning,
 Think, oh think it worth enjoying.
19. The winds shall blow and the waves shall flow,
 And thou wilt be left alone.
20. To me the meanest flower that blows can give
 Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.
21. Speak gently! let not harsh words mar
 The good we might do here.
22. Plans and elevations of the palace have been made for them,
and are now being engraved for the public.
23. To thine own self be true,
 And it must follow, as the night the day,
 Thou canst not then be false to any man.
24. Without the art of printing, we should now have had no
learning at all; for books would have perished faster than they
could have been transcribed.
25. When she had passed, it seemed like the ceasing of exquisite
music.
26. Oh, that men should put an enemy in their mouths, to steal
away their brains!
27. If time be heavy on your hands,
 Are there no beggars at your gate?
28. Boys flying kites haul in their white-winged birds.
 You can't do that way when you're flying words.
29. Thou stillest the raging of the sea.
30. It had been anticipated that, while the other colonies would
be terrified by the severity of the punishment inflicted on Massa-
chusetts, the other seaports would be governed by a mere spirit of
gain; and that, as Boston was now cut off from all commerce, the
unexpected advantages which this blow on her was calculated to
confer on other towns would be greedily enjoyed.
31. So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
 So near is God to man,
When Duty whispers low, "*Thou must,*"
 The youth replies, "*I can.*"

CHAPTER VII.

ADVERBS.

374. An Adverb is a word used to qualify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Ex. He spoke *truly*. He is a *truly* wise man. That was *very* truly spoken.

375. Classes of Adverbs.—There are many adverbs in English, and they have a great variety of meanings; but for convenience they may be divided into the following classes:—

1. ADVERBS OF PLACE AND MOTION, showing *where*; *in what direction*.

Ex. *Here, there, yonder, below, above, in, out.*
Up, down, back, forward, hither, hence.

2. ADVERBS OF TIME AND SUCCESSION, showing *when*; *in what order*.

Ex. *Then, now, formerly, hereafter, always, often, seldom, never,*
soon.
Next, once, twice, first, thirdly, fourthly.

3. ADVERBS OF MANNER AND QUALITY, showing *how*; *in what manner*.

Ex. *So, thus, somehow, otherwise, well, ill.*
Truly, foolishly, roundly, faithfully.

4. ADVERBS OF MEASURE AND DEGREE, showing *how much*; *to what extent*.

Ex. *Much, little, more, least, almost, all.*
Scarcely, quite, very, enough, greatly.

5. MODAL ADVERBS, or those which show that a statement is *affirmative*, or *negative*, or *doubtful*, or those which are used in *reasoning*.

Ex. *Surely, certainly, indeed; not, noways or nowise; perhaps, possibly, probably; hence, therefore, however, accordingly, consequently.*

376. The same adverb may belong to one or another of these classes according to its *use* and *meaning* in the sentence.

Ex. Hold your pen *so*. [Manner.]
Do not grasp it *so* tightly. [Degree.]
I have a poor pen; *so* [consequently] I cannot write well.
[Modal.]

EXERCISE 91.

ADVERBS.

Point out the adverbs, tell to which class they belong, and what they modify.

1. He spoke very clearly, but somewhat rapidly.
2. The river winds in and out among the rocks.
3. They formerly lived in England.
4. The letter was most formally written.
5. Summer is almost here.
6. That clock always runs too fast.
7. Probably they lived happily ever after.
8. The postman comes twice daily.
9. Indeed I am not mistaken, however strange it may seem.
10. So great a change was scarcely ever seen.
11. Consequently the new building will be on a far grander scale.
12. Is that done well enough?
13. The queen was so highly pleased that she rewarded him handsomely.
14. Surely trouble comes soon enough.
15. Go hence and disturb me no more.
16. Hence the area must be nearly one hundred square feet.
17. He was little inclined to talk about his adventures.

377. Conjunctive Adverbs.—Adverbs may be divided, according to their use, into two classes: SIMPLE and CONJUNCTIVE. SIMPLE ADVERBS merely modify,

but CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS not only modify, but *connect*. The same word may belong to either of these classes, according to its use in the sentence.

Ex. *When* was war declared? [Simple Adverb of Time.]
War was declared *when the Americans had abandoned all hope of peace*.

[*When* modifies *was declared* and *had abandoned*, and also connects the two sentences.]

378. Clauses Introduced by Conjunctive Adverbs. — We have already learned, in the chapter on Pronouns, that the dependent part of a complex sentence may be either a noun clause or an adjective clause, introduced by a relative pronoun. In a similar way we may have complex sentences containing noun clauses, adjective clauses, or adverb clauses introduced by conjunctive adverbs. These adverbs not only modify some word or words, but they also connect the parts of the complex sentence. They are sometimes called RELATIVE ADVERBS.

Ex. NOUN CLAUSE: Tell me *why you were late*. [Tell me *what?*]

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: I saw the field *where the battle was fought*. [*What field?*]

ADVERB CLAUSE: It happened *when I was a child*. [*It happened when?*]

EXERCISE 92.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Point out and describe the dependent clauses. Tell what the conjunctive adverbs modify and what they connect.

1. Show us how it is done.
2. This is the place where the hero fell.
3. I will come whenever you send for me.
4. Can you tell when Boston was founded?
5. He came from the land

where the orange grows. 6. The teacher smiled when he saw the picture. 7. Go wherever duty calls you. 8. Point out the place where the Romans landed in England. 9. Do you know why smoke rises? 10. Forgive us as we forgive our enemies. 11. This is the season when the nights are longest. 12. Time flies when we are busy. 13. A ruined chimney shows where the old house stood. 14. They returned to the country whence they came. 15. The frost must come before the nuts will be ripe. 16. The hall where the concert was held was some distance away. 17. How an acorn becomes an oak is a mystery of nature. 18. They started as the bells began to ring. 19. Who knows whither the clouds have fled? 20. Be useful where thou livest.

379. Interrogative Adverbs. — A few adverbs, which are often used to introduce a question, may, *when so used*, be called INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS. They are *how*, *when*, *why*, *where*, *whither*, and *whence*.

380. Use of There. — The adverb *there* sometimes has little or no idea of *place*. It is often used to introduce a sentence in which the verb comes before the subject. When so used, it is called an EXPLETIVE, because it is not necessary to the sense, but “fills up” the expression, so as to make it smooth.

Ex. *There* were giants in those days. *There* comes a time when we must die.

381. Adverb Phrases. — Many phrases are used with the value of simple adverbs, and may be parsed as such.

Ex. *By stealth*, *of yore*, *at random*, *at all*, *at once*, *at last*, *at least*, *in like manner*, *in part*, *in short*, *in vain*, *in general*, *as yet*, *by far*, *of old*, *of late*, *ere long*, *from far*, *on high*, *for good*.

382. Responsives. — The words *yes*, *yea*, *no*, *nay*, are used in *responding* to a question, and may be called RESPONSIVES. They were originally adverbs, but are not so used now, since they do not modify other words.

but are in themselves complete answers, standing for a whole sentence.

Ex. *Are you frightened? Yes. [I am frightened.]*

They are not “*parts of speech*,” but are more like the interjections.

INFLECTION.

383. ADVERBS have no inflection, except that *a few* have COMPARISON, like the adjectives.

Ex. *Soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest.*

384. ADVERBS OF QUALITY, like the adjectives which are not compared, may be made to express *degrees* of quality by the use of *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*.

● **Ex.** *Truly, more truly, most truly, less truly, least truly.*

385. Irregular Comparison. — A few adverbs, which are also used as adjectives, have also the same irregular comparison in either case.

Ex. *Ill, worse, worst; well, better, best; much, more, most.* [See **211.**]

EXERCISE 93.

ADVERBS AND ADVERB PHRASES.

Explain the use of the adverbs and adverb phrases.

1. He hardly breathed.
2. He breathed hard.
3. They waited in vain.
4. There shall be no night there.
5. Has he gone for good? Yes.
6. Herein lies the difficulty.
7. We know him of old.
8. Where is tin found?
9. The inhabitants are most degraded beings.
10. They are mostly savages.
11. How large is the country?
12. Why do you not think more carefully?
13. They had been friends of yore.
14. There came a great storm.
15. The flag floats on high.
16. She was in no wise disturbed by the thought.
17. Thou knowest not now, but *thou shalt* know hereafter.
18. They were too weary to go on.

19. They were too much fatigued to travel. 20. The prisoners scarcely slept at all and ate almost no food. 21. When can you make the journey most comfortably and least expensively?

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

386. Like the other parts of speech which we have studied, Adverbs may be, as to form, either SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, or COMPOUND.

387. Derivative Adverbs.—The following are the chief classes of DERIVATIVE ADVERBS:—

(a) ADVERBS DERIVED FROM ADJECTIVES, BY THE SUFFIX *ly*.

This is by far the largest class of adverbs. Most adjectives of quality and some others form adverbs in this way.

Ex. *Truly, clearly, hastily, wholly, splendidly.*

Adjectives ending in **ble** drop the **le** before adding **ly**.

Ex. *Able, ably; noble, nobly; terrible, terribly; respectable, respectably.*

Adjectives ending in **ic** change to **ical** before adding **ly**.

Ex. *Frantic, frantically; graphic, graphically; classic, classically.*

(b) ADVERBS DERIVED FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES, BY THE SUFFIX *wise*.

These are sometimes regarded as compound words.

Ex. *Likewise, otherwise, crosswise, lengthwise.*

(c) ADVERBS DERIVED FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES, BY THE PREFIX **a** (usually meaning *on*).

Ex. *Aback, ahead, afoot, along, aright, abroad.*

(d) ADVERBS DERIVED FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES, BY THE PREFIX **be** (meaning *by*).

Ex. *Betimes, beside, beyond, between, before.*

(e) ADVERBS OF DIRECTION DERIVED FROM OTHER ADVERBS (rarely from Nouns and Adjectives), BY THE SUFFIX **ward** OR **wards**.

Ex. *Toward* or *towards*, *upwards*, *forward*, *afterward*, *homeward*, *southward*, *shoreward*, *heavenward*.

388. Compound Adverbs.—COMPOUND ADVERBS are mostly little phrases of two (rarely more) words which seem to have *grown together* into one.

Ex. *Always*, *already*, *almost*; *somewhat*, *sometimes*; *henceforward*.

The following are two of the most common classes:—

(a) ADVERBS MADE BY JOINING A PREPOSITION WITH ITS OBJECT.

Ex. *Indeed*, *overhead*, *beforehand*, *forever*, *erewhile*.

(b) COMPOUNDS OF **here**, **there**, AND **where**, WITH PREPOSITIONS.

Ex. *Herein* (=in this); *thereof* (=of it); *thereby* (=by it); *therewith* (=with that); *whereby* (=by which); *where-with* (=with what); *whereupon* (=upon which).

EXERCISE 94.

DERIVATIVE AND COMPOUND ADVERBS.

Explain the formation of the adverbs.

Somewhat, anew, endwise, nowhere, daintily, abed, seaward, feebly, thereabout, afar, rustically, backward, also, wherever, henceforth, peaceably, freshly, westward, underneath.

389. Other Parts of Speech Used as Adverbs.

(a) PREPOSITIONS.—Some of the simplest prepositions, such as *in*, *on*, *off*, *up*, *to*, were originally adverbs; and most of them may still be used as such.

Ex. *He came in.* It turned *up*. They passed *by*.

(b) ADJECTIVES.—Some adjectives are used as adverbs without any change of form.

Ex. *Much, little, more, all, ill, fast, far.*

Sometimes the adjective form seems to be more forcible than the adverb. For example: ‘Do not speak so *loud*,’ rather than ‘Do not speak so *loudly*.’

In poetry, especially, the use of an adjective for an adverb, without any change of form, is very common.

Ex. The birds sang *clear*. The listener *scarce* might know.

Other adjectives are either turned into adverbs without change of form, or else take the ending *ly*, with a slight difference in meaning between the two forms.

Ex. He came *late*. [After the appointed time.]

He has come *lately*. [Within a short time.]

Other examples are *even, evenly; hard, hardly; most, mostly; sore, sorely*.

(c) NOUNS.—A few nouns are used in the sense of adverbs.

Ex. He went *home*. They turned *back*. The work is *half* done.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING ADVERBS.

390. In parsing an adverb, we have to tell the class to which it belongs, to give its comparison, if it can be compared, and to tell what it modifies.

EXAMPLES.

It is *certainly* true that *very* few birds of *richly* colored plumage are found *here now*.

1. *Certainly* is a modal adverb, modifying the adjective *true*.
2. *Very* is an adverb of degree, modifying the adjective *few*.
3. *Richly* is an adverb of quality, modifying the adjective *colored*.

4. *Here* is an adverb of place, modifying the verb-phrase *are found*.

5. *Now* is an adverb of time, modifying the verb-phrase *are found*.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. When the sun rose, the flag was still there.
2. He liveth long who liveth well.
3. Loud, without, the tempest thundered.
4. They were sore afraid. Their faith was sorely tried.
5. Words half reveal and half conceal the thought.
6. 'Tis always morning somewhere in the world.
7. Beauty is everywhere, if we will but look for it.
8. There came a voice from heaven.
9. Soft sighed the lute.
10. The brook still flows seaward.
11. He soon discovered his mistake, and acted accordingly.
12. They were too much astonished to reply at once.
13. In the day that thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die.
14. Slow and sure comes up the golden year.
15. Since then, England and America have been at peace with each other.
16. How will it be when the woods turn brown?
17. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!
18. Wherewith shall I save Israel?
19. Slowly ascending the stream, they came at length to an island where there was a little Indian village.
20. Search was made here and elsewhere, but no trace of the wanderers was ever found.
21. The twilight hours like birds flew by,
As lightly and as free.
22. Next came a company of soldiers, gayly dressed and marching proudly along.
23. Almost all men will admit that they are almost never quite happy or wholly content.
24. Many a shaft at random sent
Finds mark the archer little meant.
25. Probably if Queen Isabella had not soon after died, he would have received the assistance he so humbly begged.

26. He who judges least, I think,
Is he who judges best.
27. No one who has once heartily and wholly laughed can be
altogether and irreclaimably depraved.
28. Dare to be true; nothing can need a lie;
A fault which needs it most grows two thereby.
29. Under God we are determined that wheresoever, whensoever,
or howsoever we shall be called to make our exit, we shall die
free men..
30. I remember, I remember,
The house where I was born ;
The little window where the sun
Came peeping in at morn.
He never came a wink too soon,
Nor brought too long a day.
31. The greatest pleasure I know is to do a good action by stealth
and to have it found out by accident.
32. Come as the waves come when navies are stranded.
33. They who live in history only
Seemed to walk the earth again.
34. Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long.

CHAPTER VIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

391. A Preposition is a word used to connect other words and to show the *relation* between them.

Ex. *With, by, from, into.*

392. The Object of a Preposition.—A preposition is usually followed by a word which answers the question ‘*What?*’ or ‘*Whom?*’ and which is called the OBJECT of the preposition. The object is commonly either a *noun* or a *pronoun*.

Ex. I bought a box of *paper*. [A box of *what?*?]
I will give it to *you*. [To *whom?*?]

But the object is not always a noun or a pronoun. It may be —

(a) AN ADVERB.

Ex. I had never tried until *then*.

(b) AN ADJECTIVE (used as a noun).

Ex. Lift up your eyes on *high*.

(c) AN INFINITIVE.

Ex. He delights in *making* photographs.

(d) A PHRASE.

Ex. Wait till *after the shower*.

(e) A CLAUSE.

Ex. Listen to *what I say*.

393. Object Placed before the Preposition.— Sometimes, especially in poetry, the object is placed *before*, instead of *after*, the preposition.

Ex. I'll sail the *seas* over. [Over the *seas*.]

394. Prepositional Phrases.— A preposition together with its object forms a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, which may be used like an adjective or an adverb to modify some other word in the sentence. The office of the preposition is to show how its object is *related in idea* to this other word.

Ex. A house of *stone* stands by the *river*.

The preposition *of* shows the relation between its object *stone* and the noun *house*, the prepositional phrase *of stone* having the force of an adjective describing *house*.

The preposition *by* shows the relation between its object *river* and the verb *stands*, the phrase *by the river* having the force of an adverb telling *where*.

395. Adjective Phrases.— The prepositional phrase may be called an ADJECTIVE PHRASE whenever it limits a *noun* or a *pronoun*, thus having the *value* of an adjective.

Ex. A block of *wood*. [= A wooden block.]
Which of *you* did it.

396. Adverb Phrases.— The prepositional phrase may be called an ADVERB PHRASE whenever it limits a *verb*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*, thus having the *value* of an adverb.

Ex. He went in *haste*.
The pen is good for *nothing*.
It is done sufficiently for the *purpose*.

EXERCISE 95.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES AND ADVERB PHRASES.

Point out the adjective phrases and the adverb phrases. Explain the use of each preposition.

1. Flocks of birds are flying through the air.
2. Against the sky loomed the chimney of a factory.
3. A chain of steel fastened the bicycle to a post.
4. They stayed until night at the house of a friend.
5. In 1853, Turkey declared war against Russia.
6. In the spring, they sailed across the sea and found homes of peace and plenty in the New World.
7. Far out in the stream grew many water-lilies, with broad green leaves.
8. In the cold and darkness there went along the street a child of poverty.
9. A brigade of three Hessian regiments was stationed at Trenton.
10. By his side stood a cabinet of ebony and silver.
11. In the morning a message was sent to the queen of England.
12. At ten o'clock, the people of Boston, with at least two thousand men from the country, assembled in the Old South Church.

397. Phrases Used as Prepositions. — Certain *phrases* are used like simple prepositions, and may be parsed as such.

Ex. *Out of, from out, as to, as for, on board of, on this side, along side, in front of, in spite of, by way of, by means of, because of, instead of, in regard to, in respect of, for the sake of, according to.*

398. Preposition at the End of a Sentence. — Sometimes the object of a preposition is placed before the verb, and the preposition itself at the end of the sentence.

Ex. *What did you come for? Whom (not who) did you come with?*

It is better to avoid ending a sentence with a preposition, if we can do so without making the construction *weak or stiff* and unnatural.

For example, ‘The paper *on which* I am writing,’ is more elegant English than ‘The paper I am writing *on*.’ We should not, however, sacrifice strength to elegance.

399. Prepositions Used as Adverbs.—We have already learned [389 a] that some of the prepositions were originally adverbs, and may still be parsed as such. In some sentences, the object of the preposition is not expressed at all, and the preposition itself is used with the verb or with the infinitive or participle, as if it were an adverb, or a part of the verb itself.

- Ex.** You are a brighter lad than I *took* you *for*.
Your case shall be *attended to*.
It is a good horse *to ride on*.
They are people worth *speaking with*.
It is not worth *laughing at*.

400. Prepositions Used as Conjunctions.—A preposition denoting time and governing a clause has nearly the value of a conjunction, connecting two clauses or sentences.

- Ex.** Do not fire *until* I give the signal. He was here *before* I was. I stayed *after* he left.

EXERCISE 96.

PREPOSITIONS.

Explain the use of each preposition.

1. They live in the village at the foot of the mountain.
2. We went down the river by night in a steamboat.
3. These trees are hoary with age.
4. You may look the whole world over.
5. He crept from behind the curtain.
6. The sauce is spiced too highly for my taste.
7. A row of maples stood in front of the house.
8. What are you thinking of?
9. That case is disposed of.
10. What did you ask for?
11. As for me, I shall go by way of

New York. 12. Who among you will take heed? 13. Out of sight is out of mind. 14. These are facts worth thinking about. 15. Do not come in before the bell rings. 16. Of what use are pins without heads? 17. According to her story, she spends her time in studying music. 18. The enjoyment of the voyage depends upon whether you have good company. 19. Is it cold enough for snow? 20. Since then he has been free from pain.

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM.

401. Simple Prepositions.—The prepositions do not form a large class of words. The SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS are the following:—

At, after, against, but, by, down, ere, for, from, in, of, off, over, on, since, through, till, to, under, up, with.

402. Derivative and Compound Prepositions.—The following are the classes of DERIVATIVE and COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS:—

(a) PREPOSITIONS MADE FROM ADVERBS AND OTHER PREPOSITIONS.

Ex. *Into, unto, until, upon, underneath, before, behind, beyond, above, about, toward, within, without, throughout.*

(b) PREPOSITIONS MADE FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

Ex. *Among or amongst, across, beside or besides, amid or amidst, along, athwart, aslant, around, below, between or betwixt, despite.*

(c) PREPOSITIONS MADE FROM VERBS.

Ex. *Save, saving, during, notwithstanding, touching, concerning, respecting, except or excepting, past.*

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING PREPOSITIONS.

403. In parsing prepositions, we have only to state that the word is a preposition, and to point out its relation to other words in the sentence.

Ex. The victorious army marched to York. ‘*To*’ is a preposition, and shows the relation between its object ‘*York*’ and the verb ‘*marched*.’ The prepositional phrase ‘*to York*’ has the force of an adverb modifying ‘*marched*’ and telling *where*.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. He was annoyed past all endurance by the delay of the mail.
2. At last they came to where the path ended.
3. Despite all his efforts, the boat drifted down the stream.
4. He went from here but a short time ago.
5. According to promise, we were allowed to go on board of the steamer.
6. And oft we trod a waste of pearly sands,
Spotted with rosy shells, and thence looked in
At caverns of the sea, whose rock-roofed halls
Lay in blue twilight.
7. My good friend the butler desired me, with a very grave face, not to venture in it after sunset, for that one of the footmen had been almost frightened out of his wits by a spirit that appeared to him in the shape of a black horse without a head.
8. He is a careful observer of what goes on around him.
9. Glorious indeed is the world of God around us, but more glorious is the world of God within us.
10. There is no light in earth or heaven
But the cold light of stars.
11. Without boasting, we may say that America leads, in spite of her youth.
12. The sun sets beyond the western sky, but the trail of light he leaves behind him guides the pilgrim to his distant home.
13. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the live thunder.
14. The steed along the drawbridge flies.
15. The highest fame was never reached except by what was aimed above it.
16. Happy he with such a mother!
17. Under its benign influences these great interests awoke as from the dead.

18. There's no dearth of kindness
 In this world of ours;
 Only in our blindness
 We gather thorns for flowers.
19. A few minutes after the trial ended, the drums were beating
to arms in all sections; at sunrise, the armed force was on foot.
20. Till noon we quietly sailed on,
 Yet never a breeze did breathe;
 Slowly and smoothly went the ship,
 Moved onward from beneath.
21. During Queen Elizabeth's reign, great literary lights arose.
22. There was one clear shining star that used to come out in
the sky before the rest, near the church spire, above the graves.
23. Winter is here in earnest.
24. I want a congenial friend to talk with, to listen to, to find
fault with, if I please.
25. A single hay-cart down the dusty road
 Creaks slowly, with its driver fast asleep
 On the load's top.
26. We of America have no patience with such notions.
27. During our talk, she wept and bewailed that she had nothing
to live for.
28. The diamond is ground by means of its own powder.
29. He had fixed upon an admirable place to dwell in.
30. The first locomotive which ran over the road was built at
Baltimore by Peter Cooper, since widely known for his noble gift
of the Cooper Institute to New York City.

CHAPTER IX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

404. A Conjunction is a word used to join sentences or parts of sentences.

Ex. *And, but, for, nevertheless.*

405. Difference between Prepositions and Conjunctions. — Prepositions and conjunctions are both *connectives*, but of very different kinds.

1. The *usual* office of the preposition is to connect *words*; that of the conjunction, to connect *sentences*. When a word which is *commonly* a preposition is used to connect *clauses* or *sentences*, it is no longer a preposition, but a conjunction.

Ex. Do not water the flowers *until evening*. [Preposition.]
Do not water the flowers *until the sun sets*. [Conjunction.]

2. The preposition *commonly* joins two words, one of which has an *adjective* or *adverbial relation* to the other. When a conjunction is used to connect words, it joins those which are *in the same construction*; that is, those which are *used alike* in the sentence.

406. Co-ordinate Words. — Words which are joined by conjunctions are said to be CO-ORDINATE; that is, 'of equal *order* or *rank*.' The following are the most common constructions: —

(a) TWO SUBJECTS OR OBJECTS OF THE SAME VERB.

Ex. *He and I ran a race.*

They had lost home and friends.

(b) ADJECTIVES OR ADVERBS QUALIFYING THE SAME WORD.

Ex. He is an *honest but mistaken* man.
The picture is fading *slowly but surely*.

(c) PREPOSITIONS HAVING THE SAME OBJECT.

Ex. I stated the reasons *for and against* the plan.

(d) TWO VERBS HAVING THE SAME SUBJECT.

Ex. We *heard but refused* the request.

The conjunction may be here understood as connecting two *sentences*, of which the second has its subject '*we*' omitted.

407. Two Classes of Conjunctions. — Conjunctions are divided, according to their *use*, into two classes, CO-ORDINATING and SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

408. Co-ordinating Conjunctions. — CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are those that join words, phrases, or sentences of *equal order* or rank. The following are the principal groups: —

(a) THE COPULATIVES — those which simply *couple* or join.

And is the one most often used. Others of this group are *also, likewise, eke, too, besides, moreover*.

(b) THE ALTERNATIVES — those which imply a choice between two.

Or is the best example. Others are *either, else, neither, nor*.

(c) THE ADVERSATIVES — those which imply something opposed or *adverse* to what has been said.

But is the best example. Others are *yet, however, still, only, nevertheless, notwithstanding*.

(d) THE CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS — those which point out a reason or *cause*.

For is the best example. With it may be classed *therefore, hence, then*, which connect a conclusion with the reason for it.

409. Correlative Conjunctions. — *Either* and *or*, with their negatives, *neither* and *nor*, are called CORRELATIVES (having a mutual relation), because they are generally used in pairs, introducing the two alternatives.

Ex. *Either* he must leave, *or* I shall go.
Neither this man sinned, *nor* his parents.

Other CORRELATIVES are pairs of COPULATIVE words or phrases.

Ex. *Both . . . and; at once . . . and; alike . . . and; not only . . . but also; as well . . . as; what . . . what; whether . . . or.*

EXERCISE 97.

CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

Point out the co-ordinating conjunctions, tell to what group they belong, and what they connect.

1. They were glad, yet they shed tears.
2. All boys are naturally mischievous; therefore these boys must be.
3. He walked up and down the path.
4. His conduct was not only rude but also wrong.
5. We must go; else they will be disappointed.
6. It will rain soon; for the wind is in the east.
7. Give me neither poverty nor riches.
8. You thought him honest, but he is not.
9. As well tell a secret to the winds as confide it to a great talker.
10. He is at once genial and dignified.
11. Though he is rich, yet he is not happy.
12. He is

both an athlete and a scholar. 13. Come as soon as I call your name. 14. Since you mention the subject, I will express my views. 15. She professes to be charitable, whereas we well know that she is not. 16. I will allow him to go, provided he will return before the day is over. 17. What with mirth, and what with song, the hours fled gaily by.

410. Subordinating Conjunctions.—SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are such as join a subordinate or *dependent* clause to that on which it depends. *Subordinate* means ‘of lower order or rank.’

411. Subordinate Clauses.—If we join two simple sentences by a co-ordinating conjunction, we make a COMPOUND SENTENCE having two clauses of *equal* rank. If we join two simple sentences by a subordinating conjunction, we make a COMPLEX SENTENCE having two clauses, one of which *depends upon* the other.

Ex. SIMPLE SENTENCES: Frost has come. The trees will soon be bare.

COMPOUND SENTENCE: Frost has come *and* the trees will soon be bare.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: { The trees will soon be bare *if* the frost has come.
The trees will soon be bare *after* the frost has come.
The trees will soon be bare *because* the frost has come.

In the last three sentences we have changed the assertion ‘Frost has come’ into a dependent or SUBORDINATE clause, limiting the principal statement ‘The trees will soon be bare.’ In the first instance the subordinate clause tells *on what condition*; in the second, *at what time*; in the third, *for what reason*. The SUBORDINATE CLAUSE may have the value of a *noun* or an *adjective* or an *adverb*.

412. Classes of Subordinating Conjunctions.—
The principal groups of SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are the following:—

(a) CONJUNCTIONS OF PLACE AND TIME. [Commonly adverbs and prepositions.]

Ex. *Where, whence, when, as, while or whilst, until, before, ere, since, after, as soon as, as long as.*

(b) CONJUNCTIONS OF CAUSE AND CONDITION.

Ex. *Because, since, whereas, for that, if, unless, provided, though, although, albeit, notwithstanding.*

(c) CONJUNCTIONS OF END OR PURPOSE.

Ex. *That, so that, in order that, lest.*

(d) CONJUNCTIONS OF COMPARISON.

Ex *As, than.*

After the comparative conjunctions, the clause is often shortened.

Ex. *He is a better man than I [am].*

Thou shalt love thy neighbor as [thou lovest] thyself.

(e) THE SUBSTANTIVE CONJUNCTION.—The conjunction *that*, when not used in the sense of ‘*in order that*,’ may be called a SUBSTANTIVE CONJUNCTION, because it is often used to introduce a substantive (or *noun*) clause.

Ex. *That he was here* is not true. [Noun clause used as the Subject of the Verb.]

I did not say that he was here. [Noun clause used as the Object of the Verb.]

I should try except that I fear to fail. [Noun clause used as the Object of the Preposition.]

413. Phrases Used as Conjunctions.—It will be noticed that phrases are often used like simple con-

junctions. Some of the most common examples are *as if, as though, as well as, forasmuch as, provided that, seeing that, in order that*.

EXERCISE 98.

CONJUNCTIONS, ADVERBS, AND PREPOSITIONS.

Point out the subordinating conjunctions and explain their use. Point out the same words used as adverbs and prepositions and explain their use. Which words are used as both adverbs and conjunctions?

1. Where is my hat? 2. I do not know where your hat is.
3. When is he coming? 4. Tell me when he is coming. 5. It will rain before night. 6. It will rain before the day is over.
7. Since I heard of the accident I have felt anxious about his safety. 8. Since yesterday I have felt anxious. 9. She sews more neatly than I, but not as rapidly. 10. Come back as soon as you can. 11. As the train started, the crowd cheered. 12. Do not speak until you have something to say. 13. Until then I will be silent. 14. The watch did not stop until noon. 15. We will take a ride after we have had dinner. 16. After dinner, we ought to write some letters while we are waiting for the carriage.
17. The family are all going except me. 18. I would go except that I must study.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING CONJUNCTIONS.

414. In parsing conjunctions, we have only to tell whether they are co-ordinating or subordinating, and to point out the words, phrases, clauses, or sentences which they connect.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. Since the trouble cannot be cured, it must be endured.
2. It is twenty long years since the ship sailed, but no news of her has ever reached the shore.
3. The barometer foretells the storm while still the skies are clear.

4. Word came that the king had escaped.
5. It was necessary to halt for two days, that the army might collect food.
6. Though she draws him, yet she follows.
7. Moreover, he was a just man.
8. As soon as the queen died, the strife was renewed.
9. But though he was young, he was prudent.
10. Don't cross the bridge till you come to it.
11. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
12. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.
13. For some must follow and some command,
Though all are made of clay.
14. Richard pressed on, and at last reached a hill whence he could see Jerusalem, twenty miles away.
15. The people who now read his books may know almost as much of him as those who met him daily; for it was in his books that he made himself known.
16. The vine still clings to the mouldering wall;
But at every gust the dead leaves fall;
And the day is dark and dreary.
17. But neither climate nor poverty, neither study nor the sorrows of a homesick exile, could tame the desperate audacity of his spirit.
18. Life evermore is fed by death
In earth and sea and sky,
And that a rose may breathe its breath,
Something must die.
19. But Austria was strong enough, not only to hold her own possessions of Lombardy and Venice, but also to keep her creatures upon their thrones in the small states, and to crush the republican movement throughout the peninsula.
20. Neither do I condemn thee.
21. Though England was even then the first of maritime powers, she was not, as she has since become, more than a match on the sea for all the nations of the world together.
22. A man he seems of cheerful yesterdays
And confident to-morrows.
23. Who knows but that his doom is already sealed?
24. If we wait and if we work while we wait, we shall not lose our reward.

25. Let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall.
26. Either Hamlet was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.
27. Though suffering with cold, he would not make a fire.
28. Either sooner or later, he will repent of his harsh judgment, but it may then be too late to atone for the wrong.
29. It is seldom that we learn how great a man is until he dies.
30. Do unto others as you would that they should do to you.

CHAPTER X.

INTERJECTIONS.

415. An Interjection is an exclamatory word, used commonly for the purpose of expressing some feeling.

Ex. Oh! ah! pshaw! hurrah!

416. It has already been said [33] that the interjections are not properly “*parts* of speech”; because they are ‘*thrown into*’ the sentence loosely, and do not combine with other “*parts*.¹” They are used *independently* of other words in the sentence. In writing, they are generally shown to be interjections by having an exclamation point placed after each. In speaking, their real meaning is determined by the tone of voice in which they are uttered. For example, the interjection *ah!* may express joy, pain, surprise, or disgust.

417. Kinds of Interjections.—The most common INTERJECTIONS are the following:—

(a) Those expressing JOY, GLAD SURPRISE, or WONDER.

Oh! ah! ha! hey! lo! aha! hurrah! huzza!

(b) Those expressing PAIN, SADNESS, or SORROW.

Oh! ah! alas! alack! well-a-day! heigh-ho!

(c) Those expressing DISAPPROVAL, CONTEMPT, or DISGUST.

• *Pooh! pshaw! fie! faugh! fudge! whew! bah! ugh!*

(d) Those used TO CALL ATTENTION, or TO DIRECT, or TO EXPLAIN.

Ho! oh! hollo! ahoy! hem! lo! hola! whoa! haw! gee! scat! shoo!

(e) Those used TO SILENCE.

Hist! hush! tut! mum! whist! 'st!

(f) WORDS MADE TO IMITATE NATURAL SOUNDS.

Pop! bang! bow-wow! ding-dong! rub-a-dub!

418. Interrogative Use of Interjections. — The interjections *eh?* *ah?* *hey?* are often used instead of a complete interrogative sentence.

Ex. *Eh?* [Have I not found out your secret?]

Ah? [Is it possible?]

Hey? [What did you ask?]

419. Other Words Used as Interjections. — Many ordinary parts of speech and a few phrases are sometimes used independently, and may then be parsed as interjections; or the omitted words may be supplied.

Ex. *How! what! why! mercy! shame! nonsense! welcome! hail!*
help! see! look! hark! listen! indeed! good! bravo!
silence! well! adieu! farewell! good-by! I declare! oh
dear! dear me!

420. Exclamatory Phrases. — The interjections are sometimes combined with other words, to make exclamatory phrases.

Ex. *Ah me! Alas the day! O horror! What ho! O for rest!*

421. O Used with Words of Address. — *O* [not *oh*] is very often used with the vocative case of the noun.

Ex. *To your tents, O Israel! Stand still, O thou sun!*

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING INTERJECTIONS.

422. In parsing interjections, we need only to mention that the word is an interjection, and to tell what feeling it expresses, or what other purpose it serves.

In the case of other exclamatory words, we should be guided by the meaning. For example, in the exclamations, "Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on!" *charge!* should be parsed as a verb in the imperative mode; and *on!* as an adverb, modifying the imperative verb *march*, understood. Distinguish, in this way, between true interjections and words that are exclamatory but not strictly interjectional.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. Alas! what fate is mine!
2. "Ho! ho!" shouted the rollicking blast.
3. Oh, I have passed a miserable night!
4. What! here! alive! not dead!
5. Hark! that sudden blast of bugles!
6. Halt! — the dust-brown ranks stood fast.
Fire! — out blazed the rifle-blast.
7. Awake, O Bell! proclaim the hour.
8. See! see! the red light shines.
9. Hist! A word with you.
10. Pooh! pooh! danger! What care I for danger?
11. What, warder, ho! Let the portcullis fall.
12. Hark! she comes! O father! father!
13. Arm! arm! it is — it is — the cannon's opening roar.
14. Shame! shame! Oh, you have wronged him!
15. Lo! here comes the fairy.
16. O royal mistress! yield to our entreaties.
17. Enough! enough! go call my chariot-men.
18. Ah! woe for young Virginia, the sweetest maid in Rome.
19. But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell.
20. O sacred forms, how proud you look!

21. Ah! here is the flag
Torn, dripping with gore;—bah! they died for this rag!
22. Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies
Deeply buried from human eyes.
23. Ho! brave hearts that went down in the seas!
24. Away! away! quick! be quick, I say!
25. "Welcome!" the farmer exclaimed.
26. "Horse! horse!" the Douglas cried, "and chase!"
27. Ah me! but the flood came drowning one day,
And swept my nest with its wealth away.
28. O earth, so full of dreary noises!
O men, with wailing in your voices!
29. Hurrah! for the Red Island,
With the white cross on its crown!
30. Heigh ho! daisies and buttercups,
Fair yellow daffodils stately and tall!

CHAPTER XI.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

423. Double Nature of Infinitives and Participles.

— The INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES are, as we have seen [283, 284], verbal nouns and adjectives: that is, words which, while keeping in general their character and use in the sentence as nouns and adjectives, take at the same time the modifiers which are taken by the verb to which they belong — such as objects, predicate nouns and adjectives, and adverbs. For example, in the sentence

She learned *to speak* German fluently,

the infinitive *to speak* is used like a noun, as the object of the verb *learned*; and at the same time, like a verb, it takes the object *German* and is modified by the adverb *fluently*.

On account of this double character, the infinitives and participles have some peculiar constructions, to which it is necessary to give a little special attention.

INFINITIVES.

424. Two Simple Infinitives. — There are, as we have already learned [287, 288], two simple infinitives to every verb. One of these, which has always the same form with the root of the verb, is called THE INFINITIVE, or sometimes the ROOT-INFINITIVE. The other, which always ends in *ing*, thus having the same

form with the present participle, is called the **INFINITIVE IN *ing***, or the **PARTICIPIAL INFINITIVE**.

Ex. ROOT-INFINITIVES: *give, have, be.*

PARTICIPIAL INFINITIVES: *giving, having, being.*

425. Infinitive Phrases. — In addition to these, every verb forms certain **INFINITIVE PHRASES**, by adding its present and past participles to the infinitives of the auxiliary verbs *have* and *be*. These phrases have already been given in Chapter VI. [348, 349, 352], but may be repeated here, with the simple infinitives to which they belong.

SIMPLE.	PROGRESSIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Present.</i>		
(to) give,	(to) be giving,	(to) be given;
<i>Perfect.</i>		
(to) have given,	(to) have been giving,	(to) have been given;
<i>Present.</i>		
giving,	being giving (rarely used),	being given;
<i>Perfect.</i>		
having given,	having been giving,	having been given.

426. Sign of the Root-Infinitive. — The root-infinitive commonly has before it the preposition *TO*, which is called its **SIGN**. In the oldest English, the *to* was used before the infinitive only when it had a real prepositional value, meaning ‘unto, in order to, for the purpose of.’

Ex. It is good *to eat*; that is, *good unto eating*, or *for eating*.

Now no such distinction is made. We often use *to* with the root-infinitive when some other preposition

would be necessary with the infinitive in **ing** or with a noun of any kind.

- Ex.** He failed *to appear* (*of* appearing or *of* appearance).
 We grieve *to hear* (*at* hearing or *at* the tidings).
 He was slow *to speak* (*in* speaking or *of* speech).
 I have reason *to suspect* (*for* suspecting or *for* suspicion).

427. Omission of To. — To, as the sign of the infinitive, is omitted in many cases, among which are the following: —

(a) After the auxiliaries *do*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, and *must*. *Ought* requires the *to*.

Ex. You ought *to try*.

(b) Commonly, but not always, after the verbs *dare*, *help*, *need*, *'gin* (*for begin*) ; and also after *please* and *go*, in certain uses.

For example, we say

He dared not *leave* the place,
 or, He did not dare *to leave* it;

Please *read* to me,
 but, It pleases her *to read* to me;

Go *find* your master,
 but, He went *to find* him.

(c) In certain peculiar constructions.

(1) Thus, after *had* followed by *rather*, *better*, *as lief*, etc.

Ex. You had better *go* home.
 I had rather *die*.

(2) In comparative phrases.

Ex. As well *yield* at once as *struggle* vainly.

(3) After *but* following a negative.

Ex. She cannot but *grieve* for him.

- (d) Commonly after certain verbs, when preceded by a word which is the object of the verb, but which is also used as if it were the subject of the infinitive.

The most common of this class of verbs are *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *make*, *bid*, *help*, *have* (in the sense of ‘make’ or ‘cause’), *know*, *find*.

Ex. I saw him *do* it.

We must make them *help* us.

- (1) When the preceding verb is made passive, the *to* is regularly used.

Ex. He was seen *to do* it.

They must be made *to help* us.

USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

428. The two infinitives, with the infinitive phrases which belong to them, have in part the same uses with each other, and in part different uses. In noticing the infinitive constructions, we will take up first those in which both agree.

429. Both infinitives may be used as

- (a) The SUBJECT of a verb, or the PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.

Ex. For him, *to hear* is *to obey*.
Seeing is *believing*.

- (b) The OBJECT OF A VERB.

Ex. He likes *to travel* rapidly.
He enjoys *travelling* by rail.

- (c) The OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION.

The root-infinitive is now used only with the prepositions *about* and *but* (*except*).

- Ex.** He was about *to depart*.
 They had no choice but *to go*.
 I have nothing to do except *to read*.

In older English, it was also much used after *for*

- Ex.** What went ye out for *to see*?

The infinitive in **ing** is very commonly used after prepositions.

- Ex.** He is tired of *wasting* his time on trifles.
 I know nothing about her *having done* it.
 The horse is weary with *having been ridden* so hard.

430. Peculiarities of the Participial Infinitive.— The foregoing are all the constructions of the INFINITIVE IN **ing**. Two peculiarities of this infinitive may be mentioned here:—

(a) It very often follows a noun or pronoun in the possessive case, the infinitive phrase thus formed being usually equivalent to a noun-clause.

- Ex.** *Tom's being here* was a lucky thing;
 that is, It was a lucky thing *that Tom was here*.
 They insisted on *his following them*;
 that is, They insisted *that he should follow them*.

(b) It is sometimes equivalent to an ordinary abstract noun [**65**].

- Ex.** Cæsar's *passing* the Rubicon. [Infinitive with direct object *Rubicon.*]
 Cæsar's *passing* [passage] of the Rubicon.
 The *passing* [passage] of the Rubicon by } Abstract
 } Noun.
 Cæsar.

431. Special Uses of the Root-Infinitive.— The ROOT-INFINITIVE has some special uses, peculiar to itself. It may be used

- (a) As the *real* or *logical subject* of a sentence, the pronoun *it* serving as the *grammatical subject* [163 a].

Ex. It is sinful *to waste* time in idleness.

- (b) *Adjectively*, either directly qualifying the noun, or as a predicate adjective.

Ex. Rooms *to rent* (for renting). Goods *to be sold* (for selling). His course is not *to be justified* (justifiable).

- (c) *Adverbially*, after verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, to point out *intent*, *purpose*, *object*, *consequence*, and the like.

Ex. He came *to visit* us.

They are ready *to find* fault and hard *to please*.

He fell, never *to rise* again.

- (1) The common use of the infinitive after *be*, to express something *expected* or *required*, is of this character.

Ex. He is *to die* at sunrise.

We are *to be judged* as we judge others.

- (2) Any adjective qualified by *too* or *enough* may be followed by such an infinitive.

Ex. They are too many *to be sacrificed*, but not strong enough *to conquer*.

- (d) After a verb and its object, as a kind of adjunct to the object, signifying an action in which it is concerned [427 d].

Ex. They saw her *depart*.

Nobody imagined him *to be listening*.

They declared him *to have been killed*.

- (1) Sometimes the infinitive is really the indirect object of the verb.

Ex. He forbade us *to enter*;
that is, He forbade us *entrance*.

(2) Sometimes the object of the verb seems to be the subject of the infinitive, the object and the infinitive being together equivalent to a noun-clause.

Ex. He commanded the prisoner *to surrender* ;
that is, He commanded *that the prisoner should surrender*.

In such cases the object can be turned into a passive verb-phrase, modified adverbially by the infinitive with *to*.

Ex. The prisoner *was commanded to surrender*.

(3) If a pronoun follows an infinitive in this construction, that pronoun is in the objective case, to agree with the word to which it relates.

Ex. We knew *it* to be *him* ;
that is, We knew *that it was he*.

PARTICIPLES.

432. A Participle is a verbal adjective [284, 289]. It may qualify a noun, like any other adjective, and at the same time it may take the modifiers of a verb.

Ex. At the desk sat a man hastily *writing* a letter.

Here the participle *writing* describes *man* as acting. It does not assert anything, as the verb does; but it takes the direct object *letter* and is modified by the adverb *hastily*.

433. Two Simple Participles. — As we have already seen [290, 291], the verb has two simple participles. One of these, which always ends in *ing*, is called the PRESENT or ACTIVE PARTICIPLE; the other, which commonly ends in *en*, *ed*, *d*, or *t*, is called the PAST or PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

Ex. PRESENT PARTICIPLES: *giving, loving, hearing, meaning*.

PAST PARTICIPLES: *given, loved, heard, meant*.

434. Participle Phrases.—Instead of inflected forms, certain PARTICIPLE PHRASES are used along with the simple participles [348, 349, 352].

With the present participle *giving*, we have

Perfect, having given; *Progressive perfect*, having been giving.

With the past participle *given*, we have

Progressive passive, being given; *Perfect passive*, having been given.

USES OF THE PARTICIPLE.

435. The constructions of the participles differ less from those of ordinary adjectives than the constructions of the infinitives from those of ordinary nouns; since adverbial modifiers are taken in general by adjectives as well as by verbs, and only the present participle, with its phrases, takes an *object*, or is followed by a *predicate noun* or *adjective* (except in verb-phrases with the auxiliary *have*).

436. Both participles (not the participle phrases also) may be used as

(a) ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES [245], with only such modifiers as are taken by all adjectives.

Ex. a charming face, sweetly singing birds,
a charmed snake, brightly polished arms,
a very loving heart, well sung songs.

(1) Sometimes the participle, when used attributively, is pronounced with an additional syllable.

Ex. A learnèd man, a blessèd thought.

(2) In some verbs the old form of the past participle in *en* is used adjectively, while the other form, ending commonly in *ed*, is used in other constructions [313 a].

Ex. A drunken man; a swollen face;
but, He has drunk the draught; his face has swelled.

(3) Some words which are participles in form are so constantly used as ordinary adjectives that they hardly seem to be participles at all. Sometimes, indeed, there is no verb in present use to which they belong.

Ex. *charming, interesting, cunning, trifling;*
beloved, forlorn, civilized, antiquated, past.

Many compound words, also, take the participial ending **ed** to make them adjectives [243 d].

Ex. *barefooted, one-armed, chicken-hearted.*

(b) PREDICATE ADJECTIVES, in various constructions.

(1) Simple Predicate [356].

Ex. This chair looks *inviting*.
He is easily *discouraged*.

(2) Adverbial Predicate [250].

Ex. Send the ball *rolling*.
It stands firmly *planted*.

(3) Objective Predicate [251].

Ex. He kept us *waiting* an hour.
I will have a doctor *sent* for.

437. Both the participles and the participle phrases are used

(a) APPositively [246], or with the construction of an adjective more loosely attached to the noun which it qualifies.

Ex. She, *dying*, gave it to me.
The enemy, *beaten*, fled, abandoning his camp.

(1) Either *being* or *having been* is often inserted before the adjective or the past participle (rarely before the present participle), as a kind of sign or auxiliary of appositive construction. The adjective or the simple

participle is then a predicate adjective after *being* or *having been*.

Ex. John, *being weary*, has retired.

The enemy, *having been beaten*, fled.

(2) The participles and participle phrases, when used appositively, have often the value of adverb clauses.

Ex. The plants, *having been neglected*, died;
that is, The plants died *because they were neglected*.

She, *dying*, gave it to me;
that is, She gave it to me *when she was dying*.

(b) ABSOLUTELY, with either noun or pronoun.

Ex. The teacher *absenting* himself, there was no school.
One *having fallen*, the rest ran away.
It *being* very cold, we made a fire.
The signal *being given*, they started.

438. The Absolute Construction. — As the ABSOLUTE construction has not been explained in a preceding chapter [see 128], it needs particular notice here.

Examples of its use with an ordinary appositive adjective, or its equivalent are

He lay down, *his heart heavy with sorrow*;
He flies, *wild terror in his look*.

In the first sentence, *heart* is used with the appositive adjective phrase *heavy with sorrow*; in the second, *terror* is used with the prepositional phrase *in his look*. In both sentences, the expression so formed is added like an adverbial predicate [250]. It is as if *with* or *having* or a conjunction and the verb *be*, which might have been used, were omitted.

For example, He lay down, *having his heart heavy with sorrow*;
or, He lay down, *while his heart was heavy with sorrow*.
He flies, *with wild terror in his look*;
or, He flies, *and wild terror is in his look*.

Heart and *terror* are said to be in the nominative case *absolutely*, because each appears to be *absolved* ('cut loose') from the sentence to which it belongs, the usual sign of relation to the words which it qualifies being omitted.

(1) The participles and participle phrases are used more often than any other adjective element, in making an absolute construction.

(2) The form of the pronoun before the participle shows that the noun or pronoun in the absolute construction is regularly in the nominative case.

Ex. *We* sitting, as I said, the cock crew loud.

I having hold of both, they whirl asunder.

How can we be happy, *thou* being absent?

439. Participles Used as Nouns.—Like ordinary adjectives, the simple participles may be used as nouns [293].

Ex. The *living* and the *dead*; the *tempted* and *tried*; the *lost*, *buried*, and *forgotten*.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

440. In parsing an infinitive or a participle, we have to tell —

1. The *form* — whether simple or a phrase.
2. The *class*.
3. The *verb* to which it belongs; with principal parts of the verb.
4. The *construction*.

EXAMPLES.

Many of the *afflicted*, *having lost* faith in their physicians, came to these *celebrated* springs, *hoping to be healed* of their diseases.

1. *Afflicted* is the simple past participle of the verb *afflict*. Principal parts, *afflict*, *afflicted*, *afflicted*. It is here used as a noun, in the sense of *afflicted persons*, and is the object of the preposition *of*.

2. *Having lost* is a participle phrase, known as the perfect participle of the verb *lose*. Principal parts, *lose*, *lost*, *lost*. It is used as an appositive adjective, qualifying the noun *afflicted*.

3. *Celebrated* is the simple past participle of the verb *celebrate*. Principal parts, *celebrate*, *celebrated*, *celebrated*. It is used as an attributive adjective, qualifying the noun *springs*.

4. *Hoping* is the simple present participle of the verb *hope*. Principal parts, *hope*, *hoped*, *hoped*. It is used as the adverbial predicate with the verb *came*; it also qualifies the noun *afflicted*.

5. *To be healed* is an infinitive phrase, known as the present passive infinitive of the verb *heal*. Principal parts, *heal*, *healed*, *healed*. It is used as the direct object of the participle *hoping*.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

1. Pardon my asking if you like to read.
2. Please understand that this lesson is to be learned.
3. His having been absent makes it difficult for him to keep up.
4. The ambition of most men is to become rich.
5. Delightful task! to rear the tender thought.
6. The mayor ordered the bells to be rung.
7. The house was deserted and the fields lay uncultivated.
8. And fools, who came to scoff, remained to pray.
9. Flee from the wrath to come.
10. Avoid keeping company with the depraved.
11. During the storm we saw a great oak shattered by a thunder-bolt.
12. They resented having been ordered to keep silence.
- 13. I have a work to do and courage to perform it.*

14. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
15. There the wicked cease from troubling.
16. Is it better to say ‘the *taking* of the city’ or ‘the *capture* of the city’?
17. Edward dying without heirs, the crown was conferred upon Harold.
18. He hopes to merit heaven by making earth a hell.
19. The king’s persisting in such designs was the height of folly.
20. Try to improve, and you will be sure to succeed.
21. Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies.
22. We used to live in the adjoining house, fronting the park.
23. England owes her liberties to her having been conquered by the Norman.
24. We were now in danger of starving, our stores being nearly exhausted.
25. The fleet, shattered and disabled, returned to Spain.
26. She stood entranced, her eyes dilated and her lips parted, while the serpent came gliding toward her.
27. We believed the story to be false.
28. Lifting the injured child, he carried her, moaning with pain, into the house.
29. Vessels carrying coal are constantly arriving.
30. The wind goes whistling through the trees.
31. ’Tis hard to part when friends are dear.
32. What promise of morn is left unbroken?
33. The peaches seem to be ripening fast, and some lie rotting under the trees.
34. She is too plain to be charming, it must be admitted.
35. We suppose it to have been him.
36. Happiness shared is perfected.
37. The French, having been dispersed in a gale, had put back to Toulon.
38. I might command you to be slain for this.
39. No longer relieving the miserable, he sought only to enrich himself by their misery.
40. Books worth reading are to be had for the asking.
41. The soul’s dark cottage, battered and decayed,
 Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.

42. Towering in the public square,
Twenty cubits in the air,
Rose his statue carved in stone.
Then the king, disguised, unknown,
Stood before his sculptured name,
Musing meekly, "What is fame?"
43. Hark, hark ! the lark at heaven's gate sings,
And Phoebus 'gins arise,
His steeds to water.
44. Having failed to prove his innocence, he was condemned
to die.
45. This house [is] to rent, furnished or unfurnished.
46. She mentions Dr. Taylor's having given an interesting lec-
ture, illustrated by views taken last summer.
47. I was about to say that I cannot but think her to blame in
this matter.
48. My health permitting, I shall spend the coming year in
travelling upon the continent.
49. And round the house sat fifty maid-servants, some grind-
ing the meal in the mill, some turning the spindle, some weaving
at the loom, while their hands twinkled, as they passed the shuttle,
like quivering aspen leaves.
50. It is not growing like a tree
In bulk doth make man better be ;
Or standing long an oak three hundred year,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald, and sere.

CHAPTER XII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

441. Syntax treats of the combination of words for use in the expression of our thoughts. Most of the important principles and rules of syntax have been already stated. They are here repeated in brief, with references to preceding paragraphs in which the principles are stated and illustrated.

442. Rule 1.—A SENTENCE is composed of SUBJECT and PREDICATE: the subject, a noun (or a word or words having the value of a noun), names that of which something is asserted or declared; the predicate, a verb, expresses that which is asserted or declared of the subject. [37]

443. Rule 2.—The SUBJECT of the sentence (also called the SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE of the verb) is in the NOMINATIVE CASE. [106]

444. Rule 3.—The VERB AGREES in person and number with its SUBJECT. [367]

445. Rule 4.—A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE or NOUN is one which is brought by a VERB into relation with its SUBJECT, as qualifying or describing the subject. [45, 46, 125, 247]

446. Rule 5.—A PREDICATE (PRONOUN) agrees regularly in case with the subject which it qualifies.

For example, It is *I*; it was *they*.

447. Rule 6.—A TRANSITIVE VERB takes a DIRECT OBJECT, expressing that which is immediately affected by the action of the verb; and sometimes also an INDIRECT OBJECT, expressing that *to* or *for* which the action is performed. [129, 259, 260]

448. Rule 7.—The OBJECT of a VERB, whether direct or indirect, is in the OBJECTIVE CASE (the direct being an ACCUSATIVE-OBJECTIVE, and the indirect a DATIVE-OBJECTIVE). [107, 129]

449. Rule 8.—An ADJECTIVE OR A NOUN is called OBJECTIVE OR FACTITIVE PREDICATE when it is brought by the VERB into relation with the DIRECT OBJECT, as qualifying or describing that object. [132, 251]

450. Rule 9.—An ADJECTIVE qualifying a noun directly (not through a verb) is called ATTRIBUTIVE—or, if more loosely connected with the noun, it is called APPOSITIVE. [245, 246]

451. Rule 10.—A NOUN added to another noun, by way of further description of the same object, is said to be IN APPosition with that noun. [124]

452. Rule 11.—An ADVERB qualifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. [374]

453. Rule 12.—An ADVERB is sometimes used with the value of a *predicate adjective*.

Ex. The sun is *down*, the moon is *up*, and the stars are all *out*.

454. Rule 13.—The POSSESSIVE or GENITIVE CASE of a noun (or pronoun) is used to qualify or limit another noun, in the manner of an adjective. [109, 232]

455. Rule 14.—A noun expressing measure or time is sometimes used in the OBJECTIVE CASE with an ADVERBIAL value, or to qualify a verb, or adjective, or adverb. [131]

456. Rule 15.—A noun or pronoun, along with an appositive adjective or its equivalent, is sometimes used in the NOMINATIVE case ABSOLUTELY, in the manner of an *adverb*, to express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action. [128, 438]

457. Rule 16.—A PREPOSITION forms with its object either an ADJECTIVE-PHRASE, qualifying the noun, or an ADVERB-PHRASE, qualifying a verb or adjective or adverb. [394]

458. Rule 17.—A noun or pronoun which is the OBJECT of a PREPOSITION is in the OBJECTIVE CASE. [107, 392]

459. Rule 18.—A CONJUNCTION connects words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. [404]

460. Rule 19.—An INTERJECTION has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence. [33, 415]

SUMMARY OF RULES FOR SYNTAX.

461. The preceding rules show in what ways words may be combined to form simple sentences. The ordinary processes of combination may now be grouped in the form of a summary, the pronoun being, for the sake of brevity, included along with the noun.

462. I. The original elements of the sentence are the SUBJECT-NOUN and the VERB.

463. II. The meaning of the VERB may be filled out by an OBJECT-NOUN; also by a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE or NOUN (qualifying either the *subject* or the *object*); or it may be modified by an ADVERB.

464. III. A NOUN in any construction in the sentence may be qualified by an ADJECTIVE; an ADJECTIVE, by an ADVERB; an ADVERB, by ANOTHER ADVERB.

465. IV. A NOUN may be made to qualify ANOTHER NOUN, ADJECTIVELY, by being put in the POSSESSIVE CASE, or by being joined to the other noun BY A PREPOSITION; it may be made to qualify a VERB or ADJECTIVE or ADVERB, ADVERBIALLY, sometimes in the OBJECTIVE CASE simply, but usually by means of a PREPOSITION.

CHAPTER XIII.

ANALYSIS.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

466. **Analysis** is the process of separating a sentence into its elements or members, in order to show their relation to one another.

467. Difference between Analysis and Parsing.—
ANALYSIS differs from PARSING in these two particulars:—

1. It omits many details as to parts of speech, classification, inflection, and the like.
2. It views words, phrases, and clauses alike, in their mutual relations as parts of the sentence.

468. The Elements of a Sentence.—The ELEMENTS of a sentence are those WORDS, PHRASES, and CLAUSES which perform distinct offices in that sentence. For example, a phrase which is used as the direct object of a verb is an OBJECTIVE ELEMENT; a clause which is used like an adjective is an ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

469. Essential Elements.—There are two elements which are necessary to the sentence. They are the SUBJECT, which is either a noun, a pronoun, or some word, phrase, or clause used substantively; and the PREDICATE, which is always a verb. [37]

470. Subordinate Elements.—The modifiers of the subject and predicate are the SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS

of the sentence. The simplest modifier of the subject is an adjective; that of the predicate is an adverb.

471. Independent Elements. — The INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS are those words and phrases which are not grammatically related to other parts of the sentence; such as the INTERJECTIONS, INTRODUCTORY AND PARENTHETICAL WORDS AND PHRASES, and NOUNS INDEPENDENT BY ADDRESS OR BY EXCLAMATION.

- Ex.** *Ah!* The fight was long and desperate. [Interjection.]
- Besides,* the river was frozen. [Introductory word.]
- To be sure,* the mistake was natural enough. [Introductory phrase.]
- Let us, *therefore*, give heed to the warning. [Parenthetical word.]
- My friends!* we have a pleasant task before us. [Address.]
- Christmas!* What memories cluster around the day! [Exclamation.]

472. Base of a Sentence. — The BASE of a sentence usually consists of the two essential elements, the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE. In some sentences, the predicate verb requires some word after it to complete the meaning; and in such cases the BASE consists of three elements: the SUBJECT, the PREDICATE VERB, and the COMPLEMENT of the verb. [44-47]

- Ex.** Many towering *trees fell* crashing down in the path of the storm.
- These three *men were musicians* of no mean ability. [Predicate Noun as Complement.]
- All the familiar *objects looked strange* to him. [Predicate Adjective as Complement.]
- Our next-door *neighbor has lost* a valuable *horse*. [Direct Object as Complement.]

473. The Simple Sentence. — A SIMPLE SENTENCE is one which is made up of one subject and one predicate.

Ex. The *trees are loaded* with fruit, fair to the sight and pleasant to the taste.

474. Compound Subject.—The simple sentence may have a COMPOUND SUBJECT; that is, two or more subjects which belong to the same predicate verb.

Ex. *Livingstone and Stanley* are the most famous African explorers.

475. Compound Predicate.—The simple sentence may have a COMPOUND PREDICATE; that is, two or more predicate verbs belonging to the same subject.

Ex. Joan of Arc *heard and obeyed* mysterious voices.

476. Complete Subject and Predicate.—The BARE SUBJECT or SUBJECT NOMINATIVE together with its modifiers is called the COMPLETE SUBJECT of the sentence. The BARE PREDICATE or PREDICATE VERB together with its complement and modifiers is called the COMPLETE PREDICATE. [48]

477. Modifiers of the Subject.—The subject nominative of a simple sentence may be modified by

1. AN ADJECTIVE OR ADJECTIVE PHRASE.

Ex. *Small* leaks sink great ships.

The enemy, beaten, fled in disorder.

Very loosely constructed sentences have a bad effect.

2. A POSSESSIVE NOUN, PRONOUN, OR PHRASE.

Ex. *Man's* ingenuity works wonders.

His ancestors came from France.

The Roman general's name was Pompey.

3. AN APPOSITIVE NOUN OR PHRASE.

Ex. J. Robinson, *Stationer*, makes blank books.

Disease, the deadly enemy of man, lurks on every side.

4. AN INFINITIVE OR INFINITIVE PHRASE.

- Ex.** China *to decorate* is on sale at the art stores.
His plan *to raise the money* is a good one.

5. A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

- Ex.** The captain *of the ship* was a Norwegian.

478. Modifiers of the Predicate. — The predicate verb may be modified by

1. AN ADVERB OR ADVERB PHRASE.

- Ex.** Snowflakes fall *noiselessly*.
Golden-rod grows *almost everywhere*.

2. AN INFINITIVE OR INFINITIVE PHRASE.

- Ex.** The president rose *to speak*.
He resolved *to make the attack*.

3. A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

- Ex.** The mayflowers blossom *in early spring*.

4. AN INDIRECT OBJECT, EITHER A NOUN, PRONOUN, OR PHRASE.

- Ex.** I have made *father* a birthday present.
They *sent us* some fine fruit.
He gave *every man's work* careful attention.

5. AN ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE.

- Ex.** He walked *a mile*.

479. Complement of the Predicate. — The predicate verb may be completed by

1. A PREDICATE NOUN OR PHRASE.

- Ex.** His brother is a *lawyer*.
The growing boy is *the shoemaker's best friend*.

2. A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE OR ADJECTIVE PHRASE.

- Ex.** This house looks *pleasant*.
Her essay seems *remarkably well written*.

3. A DIRECT OBJECT, EITHER A NOUN, PRONOUN, OR PHRASE.

Ex. He saw *faults* in everybody.
They dressed *her* in rich attire.
The artist sketched *the ruined old mill*.

4. AN OBJECT AND AN OBJECTIVE OR FACTITIVE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE OR NOUN.

Ex. They named *the child John*.
You have made *me unhappy*.

480. Compound Modifiers.— The modifiers of the SUBJECT, the PREDICATE, or the COMPLEMENT may be compound.

Ex. *Large and small sums were invested.*
Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
The wind whistles loud and shrill.
Be ye therefore wise as serpents and harmless as doves.
In these mountains are mines of silver and of gold.
The blossoms are red or white, in small clusters or on single stems.

481. The Simple Interrogative Sentence.— THE SIMPLE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE is made up of a subject nominative and a predicate verb, and each of these may have the same adjuncts and modifiers as in the assertive sentence.

482. Forms of the Interrogative Sentence.— We have learned [55] that the usual order of subject and predicate is inverted in the INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE, the predicate being placed first. We need to notice two special forms of the interrogative sentence. The first form is used in such questions as may be answered by YES and NO; the second, in questions which cannot be answered in this way.

483. Questions Answered by Yes and No. — In sentences of this kind, the question has reference to the predication itself.

Ex. *Is he here?* [Is it true that he *is here*?]

Did he arrive yesterday? [Is it true that he *arrived yesterday*?]

The change from an assertive sentence to an interrogative sentence of this kind is simply one of arrangement, the order of subject and predicate being inverted.

Ex. *He will go to town to-morrow.* [Assertive.]

Will he go to town to-morrow? [Interrogative.]

484. Alternative Interrogatives. — A variation of this kind of interrogative sentence is made by inquiring which of two things is true in a particular case. Such sentences are called ALTERNATIVE INTERROGATIVES.

Ex. *Did he arrive yesterday, or to-day?*

Will he go by rail, or in his carriage?

The answer is not precisely YES or NO; but it commonly either asserts or denies one or the other of the alternatives in the question.

Ex. *He arrived yesterday.*

He will not go by rail, but in his carriage.

485. Questions Not Answered by Yes or No. — In sentences of this class, the question may have reference to the subject or to the object or to any modifier of subject or predicate; but not to the predicate, as in the previous case. The inquiry is made by means of some interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, placed at or near the beginning of the sentence.

Ex. *Who is here?* [Subject.]

When did he arrive? [Adverbial Modifier.]

Which horse will you drive? [Adjective Modifier.]

What have you found? [Object.]

At what hotel shall we stop? [Modifier of Object.]

The natural answer to such a question is a corresponding assertion, with the desired subject or object, etc., put in place of the interrogative word.

Ex. *The doctor* is here.

He arrived *this morning*.

I will drive the *black* horse.

The interrogative words which may be used to introduce such sentences are the following :—

Who (whose, whom), what, which (and, in old style, *whether*) ; where (wherefore, wherewith, whereby, etc.), whither, whence, when, why, how.

486. Interrogative Sentence in Assertive Form.—A sentence in the assertive form is often made interrogative simply by the tone of voice in speaking, or by the use of the interrogation mark in writing.

Ex. He has not gone yet?

Sometimes such a sentence is intended to express surprise or some feeling of the kind. Sometimes it implies that the statement was not understood, and asks for a repetition.

Ex. He will start when? [When did you say he would start?]

487. Exclamatory Sentence in Interrogative Form.—The interrogative pronouns and adjectives *who* and *what* and the interrogative adverbs, especially *how*, are often used to express some strong feeling, such as surprise, admiration, disapproval, etc.

Ex. Who would ever have believed it!

What a sight was that!

How are the mighty fallen!

Such sentences may be called EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES in the INTERROGATIVE FORM.

488. The Simple Imperative Sentence.—The SIMPLE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE expresses a command or a requirement [54]. The peculiarity of this sentence is that the verb is always in the IMPERATIVE MODE [276], but it may take any of the usual modifiers of the predicate verb.

The IMPERATIVE MODE has the same form as the root-infinitive, and it also has emphatic, progressive, and passive verb-phrases.

Ex. give, do give, be giving, be given.

But the Imperative has no different tense-forms or tense-phrases, and no change of form to express the plural number.

489. Subject of the Imperative Sentence.—Since a command strictly implies that the person commanding speaks directly to the person or persons commanded, the real imperative is only of the second person. And since, in direct address, a pronoun designating the persons addressed is rather unnecessary, the imperative is generally used without any subject [56]. If a subject is expressed, it is commonly placed after the verb.

Ex. Bring roses. Pour ye wine.

490. Imperative Verb-Phrases.—Another form of expression, made with LET, as a kind of imperative auxiliary, is much used to intimate a wish or direction in the third person, and sometimes in the first person.

Ex. Let us stand faithfully together.

Let the messenger set out at once.

Here the LET is plainly a real imperative, and STAND, etc., an infinitive. The intervening noun or pronoun is the objective subject of the infinitive; that is, it is the

object of *let*, and at the same time the subject of the infinitive, just as in the phrases *make him go*, *see him give*. [431 d (2)]

This construction is so common that it seems to supply the place of the missing first and third persons of the imperative mode; and it is properly described as an IMPERATIVE VERB-PHRASE.

491. Analysis of Simple Sentences.—In analyzing a SIMPLE SENTENCE, we mention that it is a simple sentence and tell whether it is ASSERTIVE, INTERROGATIVE, or IMPERATIVE.

Then we point out in order

1. The Base of the Sentence.
2. The Complete Subject.
3. The Subject Nominative.
4. The Modifiers of the Subject.
5. The Complete Predicate.
6. The Predicate Verb.
7. The Complement and Modifiers of the Verb.
8. The Modifiers of the Complement.
9. The Conjunctions.
10. The Interjections and other Independent Elements.
11. Analysis of Phrases used as Modifiers.

EXAMPLE.

ORAL ANALYSIS. *This heavy rain will doubtless be very unwelcome to the excursionists.*

This is a simple assertive sentence. The base of the sentence is *rain will be unwelcome*. The complete subject is *this heavy rain*. The subject nominative is *rain*, which is modified by the adjectives *this* and *heavy*. The complete predicate is *will doubtless be very unwelcome to the excursionists*. The predicate verb is the verb-phrase

will be, which is modified by the adverb *doubtless* and completed by the predicate adjective *unwelcome*. The complement is modified by the adverb *very* and the prepositional phrase *to the excursionists*, of which *excursionists* is the principal word, modified by the adjective *the*.

WRITTEN ANALYSIS. *The elements of the sentence may be written in the order indicated in 491.*

[**NOTE.**—Devices for mapping out the sentence may be used, if the teacher finds them more convenient.]

1. rain will be unwelcome.
2. This heavy rain.
3. rain.
4. the adjectives *this* and *heavy*.
5. will doubtless be very unwelcome to the excursionists.
6. will be.
7. the adverb *doubtless* and the predicate adjective *unwelcome*.
8. the adverb *very* and the prepositional phrase *to the excursionists*.
9. *excursionists* is modified by the adjective *the*.

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

[**NOTE.**—The Exercises in the foregoing chapters will furnish abundant material for practice in the analysis of the Simple Sentence. The exercises which follow are grouped so as to illustrate some of the less common constructions.]

EXERCISE 99.

IMPERSONAL, COLLECTIVE, AND COMPOUND SUBJECTS; PHRASES USED AS SUBJECTS.

[163 b, 368; 64, 370; 371, 474; 137, 469.]

1. The army of the queen mean to besiege us.
2. Havoc and spoil and ruin are my gain.
3. How far is it, my lord, to Berkley now?
4. The liberality and gratitude of the Normans were remarkable.

5. Nearly one-half of the inhabitants were assembled.
6. To do so no more is the truest repentance.
7. The committee is made up of prominent clergymen.
8. The ambition and avarice of man are the source of much unhappiness.
9. It is hard climbing, for most of us, up the hill of knowledge.
10. The secretary and treasurer has returned to his office.

EXERCISE 100.

OBJECTS OF THE VERB; OBJECTIVE OR FACTITIVE PREDICATE.

[47, 129, 163 c, 263; 132, 249, 251, 264.]

1. He wrought the castle much annoy.
2. Alfred rendered his kingdom secure and happy.
3. Sing us the song again.
4. The gale had sighed itself to rest.
5. We can walk it perfectly well in two hours.
6. Perseverance keeps honor bright.
7. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
8. He sighed a sigh and prayed a prayer.
9. The doctors pronounced the disease incurable.
10. Early to bed and early to rise
Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

EXERCISE 101.

PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE; ADVERBIAL PREDICATE.

[44, 124; 46, 247, 249, 250.]

1. Hope springs eternal in the human breast.
2. All looks yellow to the jaundiced eye.
3. The clouds hang heavy and low.
4. The fog came pouring in at every chink and keyhole.
5. Themistocles was a famous general and statesman.
6. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
7. The king lay wounded and helpless.

8. This same son of a tanner was twice elected president of the United States.

9. James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy, a tyrant, a murderer, and a usurper.

10. Waste are those pleasant farms, and the farmers forever departed.

EXERCISE 102.

ATTRIBUTIVE AND APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

[245, 246; 125, 252 a.]

1. History is philosophy teaching by examples.
2. I found the urchin Cupid sleeping.
3. Ardent and intrepid on the field of battle, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute.
4. The daughter of a hundred earls,
 You are not one to be desired.
5. Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger,
 Comes dancing from the East.
6. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.
7. He comes, the herald of a noisy world.
8. The long-remembered beggar was his guest.
9. My soldier cousin was once only a drummer boy.
10. That beautiful and common vine, the Virginia creeper, is now a vivid cherry color.

EXERCISE 103.

ADVERBS.

[135, 252 b, 380, 389 a, b, c.]

1. Tarry till his return home.
2. It is the signal of our friends within.
3. Use a little wine for thine often infirmities.
4. On my way hither, I saw her come forth.
5. The sun is up. The travellers are off.
6. The feast was over in Branksome tower.
7. His father left him well off.
8. Here was the chair of state, having directly over it a rich canopy.

9. There were no other people there.
10. The breezes whisper soft and low.

EXERCISE 104.

POSSESSIVES.

[109-117, 125.]

1. My quarrel and the English queen's are one.
2. This toil of ours should be a work of thine.
3. Winter's rude tempests are gathering now.
4. His beard was of several days' growth.
5. Thou art freedom's now and fame's.
6. Letters came last night to a dear friend of the good duke of York's.
7. Five times outlawed had he been
By England's king and Scotland's queen.
8. I knew myself only as his, his daughter, his the mighty.
9. Whose house is next to Mason and King's store ?
10. The poem refers to the Duke of Wellington's death.

EXERCISE 105.

ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE AND ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION.

[130, 131; 128, 438.]

1. He waited an hour, staff in hand.
2. In this country the sun shineth night and day.
3. The duke will not draw back a single inch.
4. Next Anger rushed, his eyes on fire.
5. Tenderly her blue eyes glistened, long time ago.
6. He blundered through the reading, careless of sound or sense.
7. Fire in each eye, and papers in each hand,
They rave, recite, and madden round the land.
8. Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.
9. Five times every year he was to be exposed in the pillory.
10. Winter coming on, the troops were disbanded.

EXERCISE 106.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

[49, 110; 394-398.]

1. I stood in Venice, on the Bridge of Sighs.
2. Who in the world is that comrade of yours?
3. We take no note of time but from its loss.
4. Her robes of silk and velvet came from over the sea.
5. He spent hours of enjoyment in tramping through the fields.
6. The moon above the eastern wood shone at its full.
7. The boyhood of Lincoln was passed in poverty and toil.
8. Forth from his tent the patriarch Abraham stept.
9. The merry children danced themselves out of breath.
10. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.

EXERCISE 107.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

[471]

1. The Romans, however, were not discouraged by repeated defeats.
2. Ye sons of Freedom! wake to glory.
3. O strong hearts and true! not one went back in the Mayflower.
4. What grace! what beauty! what matchless eloquence!
5. On the other hand, I am a very poor singer.
6. Venerable men! you have come down to us from a former generation.
7. We started, accordingly, at the appointed time.
8. Alas! I have no home, no country!
9. Books! lighthouses built on the sea of time!
10. Nevertheless, I intend to make the effort.

CHAPTER XIV.

ANALYSIS.

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

492. Simple Sentences Combined. — We have already learned that a SIMPLE SENTENCE may be filled up by adding to its subject and predicate a variety of modifying words and phrases. We now notice that there are also ways in which we may put together simple sentences, in order to make longer and more intricate sentences. For example,

They spoke *and* we listened.
They spoke *while* we listened.
They spoke *but* we listened.
We listened *while* they spoke.
We listened *to what* they spoke.

In each of these sentences we have two subject-pronouns, *they* and *we*; and each has its own predicate-verb, *spoke* and *listened*. We have, therefore, two assertions or statements in each, but the two are so closely united by connecting words as to make but one sentence.

493. Three Classes of Sentences. — A sentence formed by combining simple sentences is not itself a SIMPLE sentence. It is either COMPLEX or COMPOUND, or both together. There are, then, three classes of sentences — SIMPLE, COMPLEX, and COMPOUND.

494. A Clause.—A sentence that is joined with others to make a larger sentence is called a CLAUSE. As we have already seen [42, 43], a clause is like a phrase in being a combination of words that often performs the office of a single part of speech; but it differs from a phrase in containing a subject and a predicate, and so being really a sentence by itself.

495. The Connectives.—The CONNECTING WORDS which bind clauses together into one sentence are the following:—

1. The Conjunctions. [30, 404]
2. The Relative Pronouns. [176, 178]
3. Other Parts of Speech used as Relative Pronouns.
[193–196; 377, 378]
4. The Relative Pronominal Adjectives. [197, 236]

These relative pronouns and adjectives are often called “conjunctive,” because they are used like conjunctions in joining clauses.

496. Independent Clauses.—The combination of clauses into sentences is of two degrees, one being much closer than the other. Sometimes one clause is put side by side with another and the two are loosely tied together by a conjunction, each keeping its own value as an independent assertion. For example,

- I called, and he entered the room.
 The sun was up, but it was hidden by clouds.
 The ring was lost, or some one had stolen it.
 It was dark; for the moon had not yet risen.

In these examples, each little sentence or clause makes a separate and complete assertion. Such clauses are called INDEPENDENT OR PRINCIPAL CLAUSES; that is, clauses ‘of first rank.’

497. Co-ordinate Clauses. — With relation to each other, these Independent Clauses are called CO-ORDINATE: that is, ‘of equal order or rank.’

498. Conjunctions Used with Co-ordinate Clauses. — The conjunctions which join clauses in this way, leaving them independent assertions, are called the CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS. [408]

499. Compound Sentences. — A sentence which is made up of two or more independent clauses is called a COMPOUND SENTENCE. The examples given in 496 are all compound sentences, each being made up of two independent clauses joined by a co-ordinating conjunction.

Sometimes the independent clauses are not joined by conjunctions, but are so closely connected in sense that they are regarded as parts of a COMPOUND SENTENCE.

- Ex.** I cannot go; my time is not up.
 Carthage crosses the Alps; Rome passes the sea.
 An hour passed on — the Turk awoke;
 That bright dream was his last.

On the other hand, we often put a simple connective, usually *and* or *but*, at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to point out in a general way its relation to what precedes.

- Ex.** *But* why do I speak of death?

It appears, then, that there is no absolute distinction between a sentence and a clause; but, for convenience, we use the term “clause” with reference to a part of a larger sentence.

500. Dependent Clauses. — We have seen that in a compound sentence the clauses are so loosely con-

nected that we can take them apart and make of each an independent assertion. But there is another class of sentences, in which the degree of connection is much closer, so that one clause is made a part or member of another, or becomes *dependent* upon it.

For example, in the sentence

When I awoke, I got up

the only real assertion is *I got up*. The clause *when I awoke* tells the time of rising, and means the same as the adverb-phrase *on waking*. It is used as if it were an **ADVERB** of time modifying the verb *got up*.

Again, in the sentence

The bird which I saw could not fly

the only assertion is *The bird could not fly*. The clause *which I saw* merely defines or describes the bird, just as an **ADJECTIVE** would do. It has, therefore, the value of an **ADJECTIVE**, and can easily be turned into an adjective form:—

The bird seen by me could not fly.

Once more, in the sentence

What lay there was a bird

the assertion is simply that a certain thing *was a bird*, and the thing is defined or named as being *what lay there*. The predicate-verb *was* has no other subject than the clause *what lay there*. The clause is, therefore, used with the value of a **NOUN**, being equivalent to the words *the thing lying there*—a noun with an adjective describing it.

When a clause is thus made to play the part of a word, a single part of speech, in another clause, it is

· said to be *dependent* on that other, and it is called a DEPENDENT or SUBORDINATE CLAUSE. *Subordinate* means ‘of *inferior* order or rank.’

501. Classes of Dependent Clauses.—According to the part which it plays in the sentence, a DEPENDENT CLAUSE is called an ADVERB CLAUSE, an ADJECTIVE CLAUSE, or a NOUN (SUBSTANTIVE) CLAUSE.

502. Complex Sentences.—A sentence which contains as one of its members a dependent clause is called a COMPLEX SENTENCE. By this is meant that its parts are more ‘woven together,’ made into one, than those of the compound sentence.

503. Varieties of the Complex Sentence.—A COMPLEX SENTENCE may have one principal clause and one dependent clause.

Ex. I found a bird which could not fly.

But it may also contain more than one dependent clause. These may be of the same kind.

Ex. I found a bird which had fallen from its nest and which was too weak to fly.

Or they may be of different kinds, and unconnected with one another.

Ex. What lay there was, if I saw aright, a bird which could not fly.

Again, a complex sentence may contain one clause dependent upon another which is itself dependent upon a third, and so on.

Ex. I went into the garden where the grass was wet with the dew that lay upon it.

This is the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

504. Co-ordinate Dependent Clauses.—DEPENDENT CLAUSES, as well as Independent ones [497], are called CO-ORDINATE when they perform the same office in the sentence, or are joined by co-ordinating conjunctions.

Ex. *If we walk, if we speak, if we even lift a finger, we help to wear out our bodies.*

The men *who succeed* and *who are honored in their success* are honest, industrious men.

505. Connectives in Complex Sentences.—A dependent clause may be joined to the clause on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, by any one of the following CONNECTIVES:—

(a) A Subordinating Conjunction.

Ex. The rain poured *while the sun shone*.

(b) A Relative Pronoun.

Ex. The church *which was burned* has been rebuilt.

(c) A Relative Adjective.

Ex. He gave the children *what money he had*.

• (d) A Relative or Conjunctive Adverb.

Ex. Show us *how the man walked*.

506. Compound-Complex Sentences.—We have learned that a compound sentence is commonly formed by joining two or more simple sentences. These are called the MEMBERS of the compound sentence. But a compound sentence may be made by joining complex sentences, or simple and complex ones. If one or more of the Members is complex, the sentence is called COMPOUND-COMPLEX.

Ex. Dare to be true; nothing can need a lie;
A fault which needs it most grows two thereby.

EXERCISE 108.

- (a) Point out the clauses in each sentence.
- (b) Tell whether each clause is independent or dependent, and why.
- (c) Tell whether the sentence is simple, complex, compound, or compound-complex, and why.

1. What excited our curiosity and what led us to examine the cave was the dog's strange behavior.
2. Where the Indians came from is not known.
3. The men who lived so nobly, who fought so bravely, who died so gloriously, were all our brothers.
4. Close beside her, faintly moaning, fair and young, a soldier lay,
 Torn with shot and pierced with lances, bleeding slow his life away.
5. A single sentinel was pacing to and fro beneath the arched gateway which leads to the interior, and his measured footsteps were the only sound that broke the breathless silence of the night.
6. Near the banks of "bonny Doon" stands the little clay-built cottage in which Robert Burns was born.
7. Diligence is the mother of good luck; and God gives all things to industry.
8. Then they set sail, and at eventide drew their ships to the land and slept on the beach.
9. A king sat on the rocky brow
 Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis.
10. Every day is a little life; and our whole life is but a day repeated

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

507. Of the dependent clauses, the ADJECTIVE CLAUSE is simplest in its construction. It is always equivalent to an attributive or appositive adjective, and it usually follows the noun or pronoun which it qualifies.

Ex. The purse *which he lost* was made of leather.

508. Words Introducing Adjective Clauses.— An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE may be introduced by

- (a) A Relative Pronoun.

Ex. He *whom thou lovest* is sick.

The horse *that bore him* was fleet.

(b) A Conjunction or Relative Adverb.

Each of these is equivalent to a relative pronoun with a preposition governing it.

- Ex.** The city *where* [= in which] *he lived*.
 The land *whence* [= from which] *he came*.
 The reason *why* [= for which] *he is here*.
 The time *when* [= at which] *Rome was founded*.

ADVERB CLAUSES.

509. An Adverb Clause usually qualifies a verb; much less often, an adjective; and rarely an adverb.

- Ex.** We laughed *when we saw our mistake*.
 He is stronger *than his enemies are*.
 Our friends returned sooner *than we had expected them*.

510. Words Introducing Adverb Clauses.—ADVERB CLAUSES are introduced by a great variety of subordinating conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, as will be seen from the examples in **511**.

511. Classes of Adverb Clauses.—ADVERB CLAUSES may be classified somewhat like simple adverbs. Thus we may have adverb clauses

(a) OF PLACE.

- Ex.** He lay *where he fell*.
Whither I go ye cannot come.

(b) OF TIME.

- Ex.** *When I awoke*, it was six o'clock.
Make hay while the sun shines.

(c) OF MANNER AND DEGREE.

- Ex.** She does *as she likes*.
 They are better *than we had expected*.
I am as sure as any man can be.

(d) OF CAUSE.

- Ex.** He was silent because *he was angry*.
I am sorry that I did so.
Since you say it, we believe it.

(e) OF RESULT OR EFFECT.

- Ex.** He was so weak that *he fell*.
They shouted till the woods rang.

(f) OF CONDITION OR CONCESSION.

- Ex.** If *you are honest*, you will be respected.
Unless I am mistaken, he is the man.
He could not do it, though he tried hard.

(g) OF END OR PURPOSE.

- Ex.** He died that *we might live*.
Ye shall not touch it, lest ye die.

512. Correlative Adverbs and Conjunctions. — The conjunction introducing a clause often has a CORRELATIVE ADVERB, of similar meaning, in the clause on which this one is dependent, the two words having a relation somewhat like that of the relative and its antecedent. [177]

- Ex.** Where the bee sucks, *there* suck I.
When the heart beats no more, *then* the life ends.
If I speak false, *then* may my father perish.
Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.
As I entered, *so* will I retire.

So, too, adverbs of manner and degree are often followed by CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

- Ex.** It was *so dark* that I could not see.
He lived as well as his means allowed.

These constructions give us conjunction phrases, such as the following: *so as*, *so that*, *so far as*, *as good as*, *according as*, *no sooner than*.

SUBSTANTIVE OR NOUN CLAUSES.

513. Uses of the Substantive Clause.—The SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE has a great variety of constructions, like those of the noun to which it is equivalent. The most common are the following:—

(a) SUBJECT OF THE VERB.

- Ex.** *What he says* is never to the point.
Whether you go or stay is of little account.
That he is wealthy is evident.

As we have already seen [163 a], the pronoun *it* is often used in place of the substantive clause, as the grammatical subject of a sentence.

- Ex.** *It* is of little account *whether you go or stay*.
It is evident *that he is wealthy*.

(b) OBJECT OF THE VERB.

- Ex.** We heard *that she was ill*.
I know not *what I shall do*.
He showed me *where the treasures were kept*.

(c) PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.

- Ex.** He is precisely *what he seems*.
My home is *wherever I am happy*.

(d) APPOSITIVE.

- Ex.** The fact *that he was mistaken* is clear to us all.
His letter was to the effect *that he will come*.

(e) OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION.

- Ex.** He traded *with what capital he had*.
You err *in that you think so*.
She is doing well, *except that she cannot sleep*.

(f) The substantive clause introduced by *that* (or, rarely, *lest*) is added *directly* to a verb or adjective or noun in many cases where the noun would require a preposition before it as a connective.

- Ex.** They insisted *that we should stay* [=on our staying].
He is afraid *lest he shall fall* [=of falling].

514. Words Introducing Substantive Clauses.— The words which most often introduce a SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE are the following :—

(a) The Compound Relative Pronouns and Pronominal Adjectives [188, 236], with their corresponding Adverbs: namely,

Who (whose, whom), what, which ;
When, where, whence, whither, why, how ;
Whoever, whosoever, whenever, etc.

When used with a *simple* relative meaning, all these words may introduce adjective or adverb clauses. When used as *compound* relatives, they are equivalent to a substantive word along with an adjective or adverbial adjunct.

- Ex.** I know *who did this* [=the person who did this].
I heard *what he said* [=the thing which he said].
We know *why he said it* [=the reason why he said it].

(b) The Conjunction *whether*, expressing a doubt or alternative. *If* is sometimes, but less properly, used instead of *whether*.

- Ex.** She inquired *whether you were well*.
Whether he is old or young does not concern us.
I know not *if it be true*.

(c) **The Conjunction *that*.** This is the connective commonly used to introduce noun clauses in many different constructions. *Lest*, which is nearly equivalent to *that not*, is much less often used.

Ex. Take heed *lest ye fall* [= *that ye do not fall*].

515. Omission of “That.” — In clauses of all kinds, the connective *that*, whether relative pronoun or conjunction, is very often omitted.

Ex. It is strange they do not come.
We saw he was there.
I am sure it is so.
This is the reason I do not like him.
Here is the book you were looking for.
He came the moment he heard the news.

516. Additional Clauses. — Sometimes a relative word is used to introduce an ADDITIONAL CLAUSE, and attach it to a sentence. It is then nearly equivalent to the conjunction *and* together with a personal or demonstrative pronoun or an adverb.

Ex. I gave him some bread, *which* he ate [= *and that he ate*].
She passed the cup to the stranger, *who* drank heartily
[= *and he drank heartily*].
She carried it to the closet, *where* she stored it away
[= *and there she stored it away*].

Such sentences are *complex in form*, but are really equivalent to compound sentences.

Which, when used to introduce an additional clause, often has for its antecedent a clause, instead of a single word.

Ex. *He did not come, which* I greatly regret.

517. Abbreviated Clauses. — Dependent clauses are often abbreviated into phrases and single words. The

omitted portion is called an ELLIPSIS, and must be supplied in parsing.

Ex. It is important *if true* [= if it is true].

She is as handsome *as ever* [= as she ever was].

Love thy neighbor *as thyself* [= as thou lovest thyself].

518. Relative Words Representing Dependent Clauses.—In order to avoid unnecessary repetition, we often use a relative word alone in place of the dependent clause which it would have introduced.

Ex. He has been gone all day, no one knows *where* [where he has been].

One of you must give way, I do not care *which* [which gives way].

He is angry, but I do not know *why* [why he is angry].

519. Exclamatory Sentences in Dependent Form.—Dependent clauses are often used in an EXCLAMATORY way, the principal clause being omitted altogether and sometimes replaced by an interjection.

Ex. Had we but known of it in time! [*I wish* we had but known of it in time.]

Alas that he should have proved so false! [*It is a pity* that he should, etc.]

What a world this is! [*Consider* what a world this is.]

EXERCISE 109.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Point out the Adjective Clauses, the Adverb Clauses, and the Noun Clauses.

1. The fact that he is an American needs no proof.
2. Who steals my purse steals trash.
3. He that lacks time to mourn lacks time to mend.
4. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.
5. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
6. There is no need that she be present.
7. You cannot

tell where the cup was mended. 8. Freely we serve, because we freely love. 9. She could not read until she was eight years old. 10. It is doubtful whether the boys understood what I meant. 11. He had a fever when he was in Spain. 12. This is the season when the days are shortest. 13. They met him in Florence, where he spent the winter. 14. The house where we live is sixty years old. 15. We cherish the hope that he will return.

SUMMARY OF FACTS RELATING TO COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

520. In Chapter XII. are stated the most important facts concerning the uses of the parts of speech and the construction of SIMPLE SENTENCES. We may now sum up, in the form of definitions and rules, what we have learned about other kinds of sentences: as follows:—

521. A sentence which forms a part of a more comprehensive sentence is called a CLAUSE.

522. A clause is either INDEPENDENT or DEPENDENT: INDEPENDENT, if it forms an assertion by itself; DEPENDENT, if it enters into some other clause with the value of a part of speech: namely, of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

523. Clauses are CO-ORDINATE if they are of the same rank with one another: either as being alike independent, or as being alike dependent with the same construction.

524. A sentence is COMPOUND, if made up of independent clauses; COMPLEX, if it contains a dependent clause, or more than one; COMPOUND-COMPLEX, if one or more of its independent clauses is complex.

525. Co-ordinate Clauses, whether independent or dependent, are usually joined by CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

526. A Dependent Clause is joined to the clause (independent or dependent) on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, by a SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION or CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB, or by a RELATIVE PRONOUN or ADJECTIVE.

527. A Dependent Clause is named from its office in the sentence of which it forms a part: it is a SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE, or an ADJECTIVE CLAUSE, or an ADVERB CLAUSE.

528. A Substantive Clause is one which performs the office of a NOUN: being the subject or object of a verb, the object of a preposition, and so on.

529. An Adjective Clause is one which performs the office of an ADJECTIVE, by describing or qualifying a noun.

530. An Adverb Clause is one that performs the office of an ADVERB, by qualifying a verb, or adjective, or adverb.

531. Combination and Separation of Sentences.—It is good practice in English construction to take apart Complex and Compound sentences into the separate simple statements of which they are made up; and also to put together simple statements into Complex and Compound forms. For example, take the following

SEPARATE STATEMENT:—

A frog had seen an ox. She wanted to make herself as big as he. She attempted it. She burst asunder.

COMBINED STATEMENT:—

1. A frog had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he; but when she attempted it she burst asunder.
2. A frog that had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he, burst asunder when she attempted it.
3. When this frog burst asunder, she was wishing and attempting to make herself as big as an ox which she had seen.
4. Because a frog, when she had seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and attempted it, she burst asunder.
5. It is said that a frog, having seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and burst asunder in the attempt.

EXERCISE 110.**SEPARATE STATEMENTS TO BE COMBINED.**

A crow stole a piece of cheese. It had lain in a cottage-window. She had discovered it there. She flew into a tree. The cheese was in her beak. A fox observed this. He came near. He sat under the tree. He began to praise the crow. He said this. "Your feathers are of a lovely color. I never saw any so beautiful. This is true. You have a fine shape. Your air is quite elegant. I never heard your voice. It must be sweet. I am sure of it. A melodious voice always goes along with such beauty. In that case no other bird can compare with you." The crow was delighted. She wriggled about on the branch. She put on graceful airs. She thought: "My voice is as fine as my feathers. I will show this to the fox." She opened her mouth. She was going to sing. The cheese dropped. The fox was watching for this. He caught the cheese. It had not yet touched the ground. He ran off with it to his hole. His family were there. They all ate it together. He told them the story. They laughed at the crow's silly vanity.

EXERCISE 111.**COMBINED STATEMENTS TO BE SEPARATED.**

After a shepherd-boy, who kept his sheep upon a common where there was a dangerous wood hard by, and who was a mischief-loving fellow, had three or four times cried out "Wolf!"

wolf!" when there was no wolf coming, and so had cheated the husbandmen of the neighborhood, who would quit their work and run to help him, they all grew so distrustful of him that once, when a wolf actually came and attacked him, they would not listen to his cries, but stayed quietly in their fields and gardens, till the flock was scattered and destroyed and the boy was torn to pieces, while he lamented his own folly, and exclaimed with his last breath that he who tells lies is only justly treated if he is not believed when he speaks the truth.

532. Analysis of Compound Sentences.—In analyzing a COMPOUND SENTENCE, we mention that it is compound, and point out the clauses or members of which it is composed. We then analyze each separate clause. In writing the analysis, the clauses may be so arranged as to show their relation to one another. [See Exercises 49, 50, 51.]

EXAMPLE.

The king | must win,
 or
 he | must forfeit his crown forever.

This is a compound assertive sentence. It is composed of the two co-ordinate clauses *the king must win* and *he must forfeit his crown forever*. These are joined by the co-ordinate conjunction *or*.

The king is the complete subject of the first clause. The subject nominative is *king*, which is modified by the adjective *the*. The predicate verb is the verb-phrase *must win*, which is unmodified. *He* is the unmodified subject of the second clause. The complete predicate is *must forfeit his crown forever*. The predicate verb is the verb-phrase *must forfeit*, which is modified by the adverb *forever* and completed by the direct object *crown*. *Crown* is modified by the possessive adjective *his*.

EXERCISE 112.

COMPOUND SENTENCES: INDEPENDENT CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES.

[496-499.]

1. The people are like the sea, and orators are like the wind.
2. Nothing is denied to well-directed labor; nothing is ever to be attained without it.
3. Faithful are the wounds of a friend, but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful.
4. These are Clan-Alpine's warriors true;
And, Saxon, I am Roderick Dhu!
5. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.
6. The moon has sunk behind the Mount of Olives, and the stars in the darker sky shine doubly bright over the sacred city.
7. The Old Manse! — we had almost forgotten it; but we will return thither through the trees.
8. A little weeping would ease my heart;
But in their briny bed
My tears must stop, for every drop
Hinders needle and thread.
9. Death but entombs the body; life, the soul.
10. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds.
11. John Ericsson, the inventor of the screw propeller, had lately completed his invention of the turret ship; and a few hours after the *Merrimac*'s victory the first vessel of this class, the famous *Monitor*, appeared in Hampton Roads.
12. Example is better than precept; inspiration is better than instruction.
13. The hours glide by; the silver moon is gone; the stars are rising, slowly ascending the heights of heaven, and solemnly sweeping downward in the stillness of the night.
14. Genius rushes like a whirlwind; talent marches like a cavalcade of heavy men and heavy horses; cleverness skims like a swallow in the summer evening, with a sharp, shrill note and a sudden turning.

15. The golden-rod is yellow,
 The corn is turning brown,
 The trees in apple orchards
 With fruit are bending down.

533. Analysis of Complex Sentences. — In analyzing a COMPLEX SENTENCE we first state that it is complex, and point out the principal clause and the dependent clause or clauses. Then we analyze first the principal clause and afterwards the dependent clauses, in their natural order. In writing the analysis, the dependent clauses should be so arranged as to show what they modify.

EXAMPLES.

1. We | hear the { clock
 | that | tolls the hour.
 We | hear the clock
2. as
 it | tolls the hour.
3. That | is certain.
 it | has tolled
4. I | do not know
 whether
 it | has tolled.,

The first sentence may be analyzed as follows : —

This is a complex assertive sentence, made up of the principal clause *we hear the clock* and the dependent clause *that tolls the hour*. These clauses are joined by the relative *that*. *We* is the unmodified subject of the principal clause. *Hear the clock* is the complete predicate. *Hear* is the predicate verb, completed by the direct object *clock*, which is modified by the adjective *the* and the adjective clause *that tolls the hour*. The

relative pronoun *that* is the unmodified subject of the dependent clause. *Tolls the hour* is the complete predicate. The predicate verb is *tolls*, which is completed by the direct object *hour*. *Hour* is modified by the adjective *the*.

EXERCISE 113.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: ONE DEPENDENT CLAUSE.

[500, 502, 503.]

1. If wrinkles must be written upon our brows, let them not be written upon the heart.
2. Many a year is in its grave
Since I crossed this restless wave.
3. He who would search for pearls must dive below.
4. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.
5. Who wrote the Book of Job is not certainly known.
6. He jests at scars who never felt a wound.
7. Had not Cæsar seen that Rome was ready to stoop, he would not have dared to make himself the master of that once brave people.
8. There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
9. Mountain and lake and valley a sacred legend know,
Of how the town was saved one night, three hundred years ago.
10. If a man empties his purse into his head, no man can take it away from him.

EXERCISE 114.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: MORE THAN ONE DEPENDENT CLAUSE.

[503.]

1. As we travel inland, places are pointed out to us where populous cities once stood.
2. The book which makes a man think the most is the book which strikes the deepest root in his memory and understanding.

3. When they came to countries where the inhabitants were cowardly, they took possession of the land.
4. In fact, there's nothing that keeps its youth,
So far as I know, but a tree and truth.
5. It is doubtful whether he will ever find the way to heaven
who desires to go thither alone.
6. For 't is the mind that makes the body rich;
And, as the sun breaks through the darkest clouds,
So honor peereth in the meanest habit.
7. We cannot perceive that the study of grammar makes the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society.
8. A man should never be ashamed to own that he has been in the wrong, which is but saying in other words that he is wiser to-day than he was yesterday.
9. As the boats moved silently up the river, Farragut lashed himself to the mast of his ship, so that he might be able to see above the smoke when the battle began.
10. A tradition relates that when the barbarians, under cover of the darkness of night, had climbed the steep rock, and had almost effected an entrance to the citadel, the defenders were awokened by the cackling of some geese, which the piety of the famishing soldiers had spared, because these birds were sacred to Juno.

EXERCISE 115.

CO-ORDINATE DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

1. Henry VII. was buried in the beautiful chapel of Westminster Abbey which he had himself founded and which still bears his name.
2. When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead.
3. Recollect that trifles make perfection, and that perfection is no trifle.
4. We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel.
5. They who are most weary of life and who are most unwilling to die are those who have lived to no purpose.
6. If there were air to convey a sound from the sun to the

earth, and a noise could be made loud enough to pass that distance, it would require over fourteen years for it to come to us.

7. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts, in glad surprise,
To higher levels rise.
8. Laws are like cobwebs, which may catch small flies, but which let wasps and hornets break through.
9. Then he thought how the long streets were dotted with lamps, and how the peaceful stars were shining overhead.
10. The breeze comes whispering in our ear
That dandelions are blossoming near,
That maize has sprouted, that streams are flowing,
That the river is bluer than the sky,
That the robin is plastering his house hard by.

EXERCISE 116.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES.

[506.]

1. The more we do, the more we can do; the more busy we are, the more leisure we have.
2. Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower,
And they trimmed the lamps as the sun went down.
3. Blessed is he who has found his work; let him ask no other blessedness.
4. I slept and dreamt that life was Beauty,
I woke and found that life was Duty.
5. All the hedges are white with dust, and the great dog under the creaking wain
Hangs his head in the lazy heat, while onward the horses toil and strain.
6. If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost; that is where they should be; now put foundations under them.
7. God gives thee youth but once;
Keep, then, the childlike heart that will
His kingdom be.

8. He who has a thousand friends hath not a friend to spare,
And he who has one enemy shall meet him everywhere.
9. The tongue is the key-board of the soul; but it makes a
world of difference who sits to play upon it.
10. Speak clearly, if you speak at all;
Carve every word before you let it fall.

EXERCISE 117.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

[507, 508.]

1. Happy is the nation that has no history.
2. Richard pressed on, and at length reached a hill whence he could see Jerusalem, twenty miles away.
3. Count that day lost whose low-descending sun Views from thy hand no worthy action done.
4. The veil that hides the future is woven of '*perhaps*.'
5. Never to the bow that bends Comes the arrow that it sends;
Never comes the chance that passed;
That one moment was its last.
6. Gone are the birds that were our summer guests.
7. The long-remembered beggar was his guest,
Whose beard, descending, swept his aged breast.
8. Ye winds, that move over the mighty spaces of the West,
chant his requiem!
9. There was never yet philosopher
That could endure the toothache patiently.
10. It is the hour when from the boughs
The nightingale's high note is heard.

EXERCISE 118.

ADVERB CLAUSES.

[509-512.]

1. The childhood shows the man, as morning shows the day.
2. It was necessary to halt for two days, that the army might collect food.

3. The higher we climb, the colder it grows.
4. Confidence cannot dwell where Selfishness is porter at the gate.
5. Whither thou goest I will go; and where thou lodgest I will lodge.
6. Since my country calls me, I obey.
7. The earlier you rise, the better your nerves will bear study.
8. When you face a difficulty, never let it stare you out of countenance.
9. Though the mills of God grind slowly,
Yet they grind exceeding small.
10. By the flow of the inland river,
Whence the fleets of iron have fled,
Where the blades of the grave-grass quiver,
Asleep are the ranks of the dead.

EXERCISE 119.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

[513, 514.]

1. Think that To-day shall never dawn again!
2. Just how the mine was discovered was the subject of dispute.
3. We considered whether the letter demanded a reply.
4. It is by careful saving that men grow rich.
5. Whoever saw it first cried out "I see the star!"
6. Who builds a church to God, and not to fame,
Will never mark the marble with his name.
7. They were but too ready to believe that whoever had incurred his displeasure had deserved it.
8. They will admit that he was a great poet; but they will deny that he was a great man.
9. The imprudent man reflects on what he has said; the wise man, on what he was going to say.
10. The Greeks said grandly, in their tragic phrase,
'Let no one be called happy till his death.'

EXERCISE 120.

OMISSION OF THAT: DEPENDENT CLAUSES OF ADDITION.

[515, 516.]

1. Measure your mind's height by the shadow it casts.
2. We must be gentle, now we are gentlemen.
3. The face you wear, the thoughts you bring,
 A heart may heal or break.
4. I thrice presented him a kingly crown, which he did thrice
refuse.
5. A glass was offered to Mannerling, who drank it to the
health of the reigning prince.
6. Take the good the gods provide thee.
7. The moment my business here is arranged, I must set out.
8. The schoolmaster had hardly uttered these words, when
the stranger entered.
9. Lives of great men all remind us
 We can make our lives sublime.
10. The king sent forth a herald who proclaimed that all the
spindles in the realm must be destroyed; which royal command
was instantly obeyed.

EXERCISE 121.

ABBREVIATED AND EXCLAMATORY DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

[517-519.]

1. Beauty's tears are lovelier than her smile.
2. How blessings brighten as they take their flight!
3. What a piece of work is man!
4. Let him, when well again, return to duty.
5. How sleep the brave, that sink to rest
 By all their country's wishes blest!
6. Ah! what would the world be to us,
 If the children were no more!
7. A good man's life often teaches more than his words.
8. Oh, did we but know when we are happy!

9. It [mercy] becomes the throned monarch better than his crown.

10. To thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. He is happiest, be he king or peasant, who finds peace in his home.

2. To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die.

3. And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all he knew.

4. Beautiful hands are those that do
Work that is earnest and brave and true,
Moment by moment, the long day through.

5. If you do not wish a man to do a thing, you had better get him to talk about it; for the more men talk the more likely are they to do nothing else.

6. Just before the action, Nelson ran up this signal to the mast-head of his ship, where all might see it: "England expects every man to do his duty."

7. To each of these chairs was added a footstool, curiously carved and inlaid with ivory, which mark of distinction was peculiar to them.

8. What you make of life it will be to you. Take it up bravely, bear it on cheerfully, lay it down triumphantly.

9. The little rill near the source of one of the great American rivers is an interesting object to the traveller, who is apprised, as he steps across it or walks a few miles along its bank, that this is the stream which runs so far and gradually swells into so immense a flood.

10. Twenty Norman knights, whose battered armor had flashed fiery and golden in the sunshine all day long and now looked silvery in the moonlight, dashed forward to seize the royal banner from the English knights and soldiers, still faithfully collected around their blinded king.

11. The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.
12. The truly wise man will so speak that no one will observe
how he speaks.
13. The ancients believed that there are two gates of Sleep :
one of horn, by which all true dreams go forth ; the other of ivory,
by which the false ones issue.
14. The Duke of Gloucester, only six years old, with a little
musket on his shoulder, came to meet his uncle, and presented
arms. "I am learning my drill," the child said, "that I may help
you to beat the French."
15. Do all the good you can, to all the people you can, as long
as ever you can, in every place you can.
16. Now and then a crimson or yellow leaf winnows its way
slowly down through the smoky light, and "the sound of dropping
nuts is heard" in the still woods.
17. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.
18. It was nine o'clock, and the adverse armies still stood
motionless, each gazing on the other.
19. Happy he whom neither wealth nor fashion,
Nor the march of the encroaching city
Drives an exile
From the hearth of his ancestral homestead.
20. Give what you have. To some one it may be better than
you dare to think.
21. Oh, what hadst thou to do with cruel Death,
Who wast so full of life, or Death with thee,
That thou shouldst die before thou hadst grown old !
22. Time has a doomsday-book upon whose pages he is con-
tinually recording illustrious names. But, as often as a new name
is written there, an old one disappears.
23. One who is contented with what he has done will never
become famous for what he will do.
24. But the ship sailed safely over the sea,
And the hunters came from the chase in glee,
And the town that was builded upon a rock
Was swallowed up in the earthquake-shock.

25. He that cannot forgive others breaks the bridge over which he must pass himself; for every man has need to be forgiven.

26. Small service is true service while it lasts;
 Of friends, however humble, scorn not one;
 The daisy, by the shadow that it casts,
 • Protects the lingering dew-drop from the sun.

27. Firmly builded with rafters of oak, the house of the farmer stood on the side of a hill commanding the sea; and a shady sycamore grew by the door, with a woodbine wreathing around it.

28. Love is sunshine, hate is shadow,
 Life is checkered shade and sunshine;
 Rule by love, O Hiawatha.

29. The wealth of Bruges and other Flemish cities was so enormous that, when the queen of France saw the ladies in their silks and jewels, she exclaimed in envious astonishment "Why, they are all queens here!"

30. The first message ever sent by a recording telegraph was forwarded May, 1844, between Washington and Baltimore, in these sublime words: "What hath God wrought!"

31. In Hampton meadows, where mowers laid
 Their scythes to the swaths of salted grass,
 "Ah, well-a-day! our hay must be made!"
 A young man sighed, who saw them pass.

32. Politeness is to goodness what words are to thought.

33. His flag of truce being still fired upon, Montgomery caused the Indians in his camp to shoot arrows into the town, having letters attached to them, addressed to the inhabitants, representing Carleton's refusal to treat, and advising them to rise in a body and compel him.

34. In this wondrous world wherein we live, which is the world of Nature, man has made to himself another world hardly less wondrous, which is the world of Art.

35. As the Sandwich Islander believes that the strength and valor of the enemy he kills passes into himself, so we gain the strength of the temptation we resist.

36. William Caxton, a London merchant, having learned the *new art of printing* in Flanders, now returned to his native coun-

try and set up a small press within the precincts of Westminster Abbey.

37. Every sailor in the port
Knows that I have ships at sea,
Of the waves and winds the sport;
And the sailors pity me.
38. English, Spanish, Dutch, and French voyagers sailed along the coast and up the rivers; and each, on coming to a place which no one else had yet visited or described, planted upon it the flag of his own country, and set it down on his map as belonging to the sovereign whom he served.
39. Who gives himself with his alms feeds three :
Himself, his hungering neighbor, and me.
40. An abundant supply of water, brought from the mountains by old Moorish aqueducts, circulates throughout the palace, supplying its baths and fish-pools, sparkling in jets within its halls, or running in channels along the marble pavements.
41. Wisely and well said the Eastern bard :
“Fear is easy, but love is hard.”
42. Pastor John Robinson, of the Pilgrim Church of Leyden, Holland, once wrote to Myles Standish, after that valiant captain had fought a battle with the natives : “Oh ! how happy a thing it would have been if you had converted some before you killed any !”
43. Where shall the singing bird a stranger be
That finds a nest for him in every tree ?
How shall he travel who can never go
Where his own voice the echoes do not know,
Where his own garden flowers no longer learn to grow ?
44. Resolve to see the world on the sunny side, and you have almost won the battle of life at the outset.
45. One may enter heaven as a king, crowned ; another enters “so as by fire.”
46. All that thou canst call thine own
Lies in thy *to-day*.
47. We cannot honor our country with too deep a reverence ; we cannot love her with an affection too pure and fervent ; we cannot serve her with an energy of purpose or a faithfulness of zeal too steadfast and ardent.

48. Oh, better that her shattered hulk
Should sink beneath the wave !
Her thunders shook the mighty deep,
And there should be her grave.
Nail to the mast her holy flag,
Set every threadbare sail,
And give her to the god of storms,
The lightning and the gale !

49. When all was over, Wellington said to Blücher, as he stood by him on a little eminence looking down upon the field covered with the dead and dying, "A great victory is the saddest thing on earth, except a great defeat."

50. Were a star quenched on high,
For ages would its light,
Still travelling downward from the sky,
Shine on our mortal sight.
So when a great man dies,
For years beyond our ken
The light he leaves behind him lies
Upon the paths of men.

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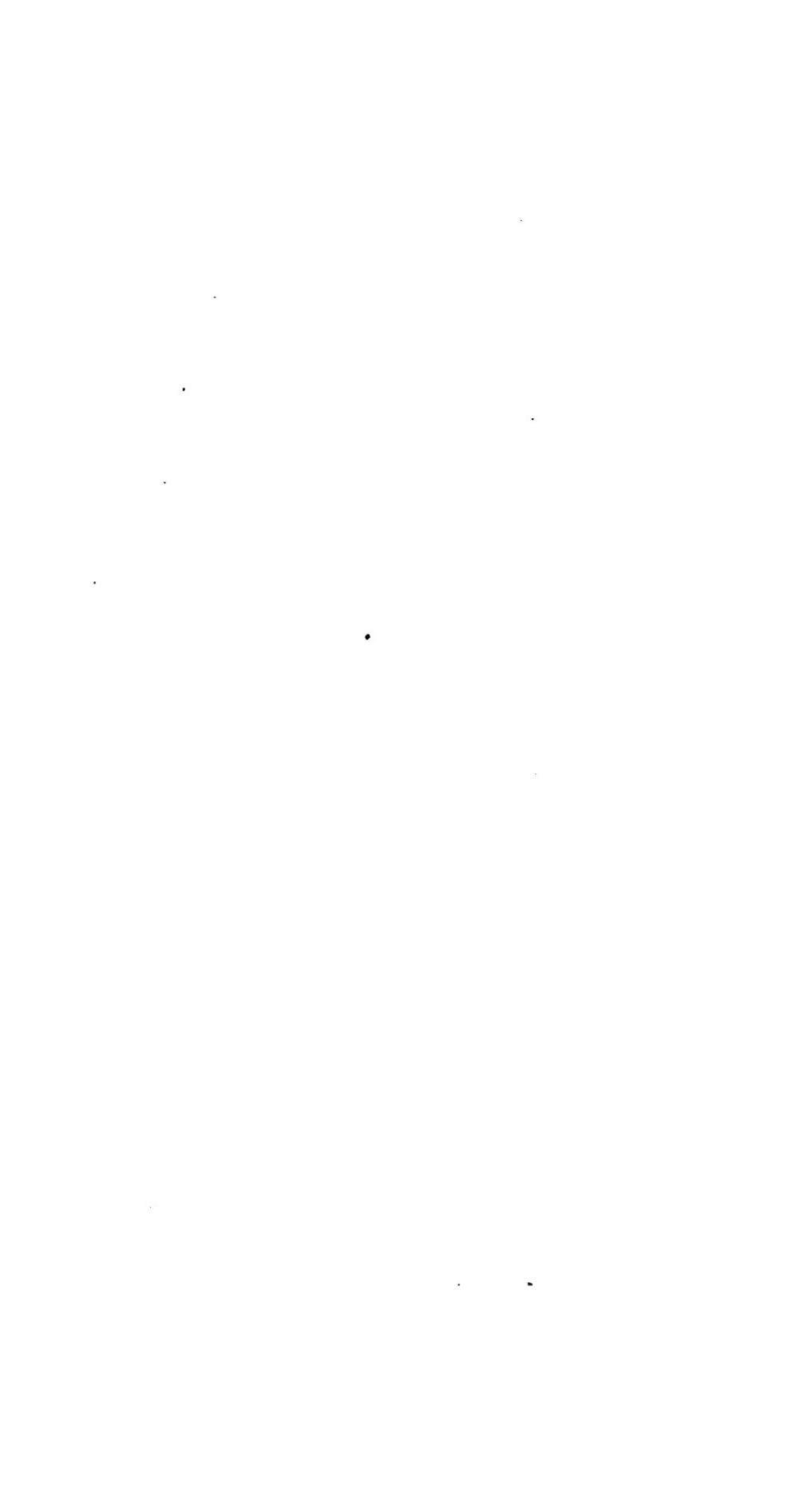
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